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ABSTRACT

Four papers on second language learning are include. "Comparing Native and Nonnative Speakers' Error Correction in Foreign Language Writing" (Catherine A. Jolivet) examines differences between native and nonnative French speaking teachers in their error correction on students' compositions. "ESL Students' Opinions About Instruction in Pronunciation" (Matt Madden, Zena Moore) reports on a study of different students' attitudes about pronunciation instruction. In "Factors of Attrition in Japanese Language Enrollments" (Yoshito Saito-Abbott, Keiko Samimy), influences on university-level Japanese language enrollment and attrition are examined. "An Analysis of a Common Structure in Korean-English Code-Switching: A Test of the Matrix Language Framework" (Mi-Ae Lee) looks at the morphosyntactic mechanism of a common Korean-English code-switching pattern. (MSE)

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Foreign Language Education Program
The University of Texas at Austin

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Contemporary Issues in Foreign and Second Language Learning and Teaching

Volume 3 Number 1 Fall 1997

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The University of Texas at Austin

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Comparing Native and Nonnative Speakers' Error Correction in Foreign Language Writing

CATHERINE A. JOLIVET

The purpose of the study reported here was to determine whether or not there were differences between native and nonnative speakers/instructors of French when they corrected second-year students' compositions. The data for analysis consisted of students' compositions which were corrected and returned to them. The subjects of the study were teaching assistants (TAs) at a large state university. The methods used were both qualitative and quantitative. In order to examine the differences between native and nonnative speakers of French, a MANOVA was run. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups in the number of errors corrected nor in error categories. Native and nonnative speakers alike showed a lack of interest in the content of the compositions. It appeared that nonnative speakers of French were as capable as native speakers of identifying and correcting students' mistakes. Implications from the study point to several areas in need of further research, such as TA preparation specifically as it involves error correction and the teaching of writing in the foreign language classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Compositions have typically been the most common types of assignment given to foreign language students. Instructors usually correct the compositions mostly for their **grammatical content**, sometimes neglecting the ideas, creativity, and originality of their more **individual and personal content**. Moreover, instructors typically offer systematic formats for correcting grammatical errors. For example, if a student turns in a composition about last summer's vacation (in order, no doubt, to verify the use of the past tenses in French), the instructor corrects the grammatical aspects of the composition, and gives it back to the student, who reads his or her grade and puts the composition away for good, never to look at it again. Since it is now known and recognized that recognized that the best possible way to learn a foreign language is to do so in context, it does not make much sense to teach writing as an isolated act.

For the most part, beginning and intermediate level college language classes are taught by teaching assistants, the majority of whom are not native speakers of the target language. Some researchers found that corrections performed by nonnative instructors differ from corrections performed by

native speakers (Heilenman, 1991; Davies, 1983). It appears that nonnatives feel more comfortable correcting grammar than they do meaningful content. They also tend to correct more mistakes than natives do. The present study proposed to examine the differences that existed between native and nonnative speakers of French when correcting intermediate students' compositions. The researcher's hypothesis was that there would be differences in the number of errors corrected by native and nonnative speakers. Specifically, that nonnative speakers will make more corrections.

This study will answer the following three research questions:

1. Are there any differences in the number of corrections performed by native and nonnative speaking instructors of university intermediate French classes when they evaluate compositions?

2. Are there any differences between native and nonnative speakers in the categories where error correction was performed?

3. Are there any differences between native and nonnative speakers when and if they paid attention to content?

BACKGROUND

Several studies conducted in student written production established the background for the present study. Green and Hecht (1985)[1] conducted a study comparing native and nonnative evaluation of learners' errors in written discourse. Their purpose was to establish categories, causes and gravity of errors, and to examine differences in native and nonnative assessment of them. Results of the Green and Hecht 1985 study showed that more than half the errors recorded were grammatical in nature and that errors were caused by a variety of possibilities. As far as error gravity was concerned, results demonstrated little agreement between graders. Therefore, it can be said that, overall, German graders were the most severe in the category of grammatical errors. Natives were more influenced by meaning in their judgment of error gravity. German graders focused more on form, and consequently communication of meaning was somewhat secondary and often simulated.

Kobayashi (1992) conducted a study investigating how native speakers of English and native speakers of Japanese at professorial, graduate, and undergraduate levels evaluated ESL compositions written by Japanese students. Two compositions (A and B) were written by two Japanese students and were evaluated by 269 subjects, all of whom were in language related disciplines (some were undergraduate students, some graduate students, others were professors). There were 145 native speakers of English and 124 native

speakers of Japanese. The subjects were assigned either composition A or B and asked to evaluate them for the following: grammaticality, clarity of meaning, naturalness, and organization, using a 10-point scale.

Findings were analyzed in four areas. The first was grammaticality. Overall, Japanese subjects of all academic levels evaluated both compositions more positively that did the English native-speaking group. For both compositions, the higher the academic status of the groups, the smaller the differences were between English and Japanese subjects. Among the English native-speaking group, the higher the status, the more positive were the rating for both compositions. Among the Japanese native-speaking group, the ratings varied widely for the two compositions. In composition A, the Japanese graduate students gave the most positive evaluations, whereas the professors gave the most negative. In composition B, the findings were reversed.

In the area of clarity of meaning, when comparing native speakers of English and Japanese with the same status, English native speaking professors and graduate students gave more positive evaluations than did the equivalent Japanese speaking group. However, the Japanese undergraduates evaluated the compositions significantly more positively than did the English-speaking undergraduate students. Among the English native-speaking groups, the higher the academic status, the more positive the evaluation. This was not true for Japanese native speaking groups.

In the area of naturalness, if one discarded the graduate students' evaluation of composition B, native speakers of English were more rigid in their judgment than their Japanese counterparts. A possible explanation for the finding may be that native speakers have stricter criteria for naturalness in their language than do nonnative speakers, which in turn, may be explained by the fact that nonnative speakers have difficulty judging naturalness in a second language, whereas native speakers rely on their intuition.

In the last area of organization, English native-speaking professors and graduate students gave more positive evaluations for both compositions than did their Japanese counterparts. However, the Japanese undergraduates evaluated both compositions far more positively than the English undergraduate students.

Takashima (1987) examined to what extent nonnative speakers were qualified to correct free compositions. In order to investigate the issue, a Japanese university graduate who majored in English was asked to write a composition. A Japanese teacher of English and two native speakers of English, who were also college level teachers, were asked to correct the composition. The corrected versions were compared and the results showed: (a) that the nonnative corrected as many mistakes as the natives; (b) the nonnative modified the composition in a different

way from the native speakers, and sometimes to the detriment of original meaning; (c) the nonnative was relatively good at correcting mistakes in punctuation and spelling and (d) the nonnative's lack of knowledge of certain grammatical rules or proper usage had some effect on his/her ability to correct the composition.

In light of the above presented studies, it appears that native speakers are generally more competent than nonnative speakers when they correct compositions. It also appears that native speakers correct errors that affect comprehension and meaning, whereas their nonnative counterparts tend to be more grammar-driven in their corrections. The present study proposed to examine students' writing in context and to compare native and nonnative speakers of French when they evaluated students' compositions.

POPULATION AND PARTICIPANTS

The subjects were university students enrolled in all eight sections of third and fourth semester French at a large southeastern U.S. state university.

The group of instructors were eight teaching assistants in the Department of French at the same state university. Four were French native speakers and four were English native speakers from the USA.

DATA SOURCES

The researcher obtained photocopies of the first and final drafts of all the students' compositions which the TAs had already corrected, graded, and returned to the students. The semester compositions were all syllabus-assigned and the researcher chose the second written assignment. The compositions were collected only after they had been returned to the students so as to prevent the study from biasing the grades the students received, and also to guarantee that the instructors did not change their grading method for the purpose of the study. The topic of the composition was common to all eight sections of second-year French courses. The researcher did not inform the instructors of her desire to collect the compositions. She just made sure that they would be a mandatory assignment for all sections. Length of the composition was limited to one page, typed and double-spaced, thus allowing for control for handwriting discrepancies.

The deadline for turning in the composition was the same for all sections, so that students had approximately the same amount of instruction at the time they did the assignment. Even though some were in their third semester and others in their fourth, there were no significant differences in the written production of the third and fourth semester students.

SAMPLES

Once collected, the final drafts of the compositions were put in ascending order from lowest to highest score within each section, based

on the grade assigned by the TA. There were approximately fifteen compositions per section and there were eight sections in all, making a total of 220 compositions. They were placed in one of the following two groups: low (Cs and Ds) or high (As or Bs). The number of randomly selected compositions in each group and in each section formed the database for statistical analysis. Sixty-four (64) randomly selected compositions were analyzed.

METHOD AND DESIGN

Method

The research design incorporated both quantitative and qualitative procedures and sought to answer the three research questions (a) on differences in the number of corrections performed by native and nonnative speaking instructors of university intermediate French classes when they evaluate compositions; (b) on differences between native and nonnative speakers in the categories where error correction was performed and (c) on differences between native and nonnative speakers as to the content of the compositions.

The third research question was dealt with qualitatively through the analysis of a questionnaire and an interview, as well as through the researcher's interpretation of participants' comments found in the compositions.

The randomly selected compositions were placed into two groups: those corrected by native speakers of French and those corrected by nonnative speakers of French.

The types of error correction present in the data from each group was examined by the researcher—who is a native speaker of French—and by another native speaker of French, using a previously established correction grid. This correction instrument was partially borrowed from Magnan's study on Grammar and the ACTFL Proficiency Interview (1988, p. 270). Magnan (1988) isolated seven grammatical categories which, she explained, are "based on knowledge of French, experience with the areas of student difficulty and experience with OPI testing" (p. 270). The seven error categories selected by Magnan were (1) Verb Conjugation, (2) Tense/Mood, (3) Determiners, (4) Adjectives, (5) Prepositions, (6) Object Pronouns, and (7) Relative Pronouns. Using this framework,[2] Magnan grouped the items into the following four categories: (1) verb-clause error, (2) noun-clause error, (3) spelling error, and (4) pronoun error.

To assess interrater reliability between the researcher and the other native speaker of French, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated. A correlation of .92 indicated very high interrater reliability.

Design

The design was a 2 (native/non-native) X 2 (low/high) X 4 (number of teachers nested within

the design, a ratio was calculated: the number of errors corrected by the teacher divided by the total number of errors present in each error category. In order to calculate the ratio, the number of errors corrected and the total number of errors present in each composition and in each error category were counted. For example, the number of noun clause errors corrected by the teacher was counted; the number of noun-clause errors not corrected was also tabulated; the total number of noun-clause errors was obtained by adding the number of errors corrected and the number of errors left uncorrected. The procedure was repeated for each subject in each error category.

ANALYSIS

Procedure for Research Question 1

To determine whether or not there were differences in the number of corrections performed by native and nonnative speakers/ instructors of university intermediate French classes when they evaluate compositions, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on the data, namely, on the percentage of corrected error means.

Procedure for Research Question 2

In order to determine any differences between native and nonnative speakers in the categories where error correction was performed, the researcher ran four ANOVAs, one for each error category. The results of each ANOVA provided F values for each error category under analysis, and therefore indicate in which category or categories the native and nonnative speakers corrected differently.

Procedure for Research Question 3

To determine any differences between native and nonnative speakers when and if they paid attention to content, the following procedure was used. Each participating TA was invited to respond to a questionnaire about pedagogical background and whether or not composition evaluation guidelines had been provided that semester. The participants also provided their own evaluation tools if they had any.

Each participant was also interviewed so as to determine whether they considered all errors marked in the grade and whether they believed all errors marked and considered in the grade to be of equal importance.

A sample questionnaire and a list of the interview questions are presented in Appendices A and B. To determine the answer to Question 3, the researcher read the instructors' comments (if any) on both first and final drafts of the compositions and analyzed the focus of the comments (linguistic accuracy, content, interest, organization, etc.).

RESULTS

Statistical Results

The means of error correction for native and nonnative speakers in each error category and for the

high and low groups are presented in Table 1.

The multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) answered Question 1. The MANOVA is a test of the means presented above. Its results yielded significant $F(1, 124) = 16.960$, $p < .05$ for the main effects of the variable, High/Low, indicating that there were significant differences in the number of errors corrected according to which group (high or low) a composition belonged. In other words, there were differences in the number of corrections according to what grade a composition received.

No significant F values were yielded for the main effects of the variable Native/Nonnative. For the main effects of Native/Nonnative, $F(1, 124) = 1.129$, $p > .05$. The lack of significant value for the main effects of Native/Nonnative can be interpreted as a lack of differences between native and nonnative speakers of French when they corrected the compositions overall.

The answer to the first research question was therefore negative: there were no significant differences between native and nonnative speakers/instructors in the number of errors corrected. However, there were significant differences in the number of errors corrected according to the group, (High or Low), in which the compositions were placed. More errors were corrected in the low group of compositions than in the high group.

Since the main effects of High/Low were significant, univariate F-tests were conducted in order to determine if the effect was significant for all variables. Results are presented in Table 2.

The main effects of High/Low were significant in all error categories. Therefore, it can be concluded that the number of corrections greatly influenced the grade that a composition received. There were significant differences in the number of errors corrected by native and nonnative speakers of French in the High and the Low compositions in all of the error categories. However, since the main effects of Native/Nonnative was not found to be significant, the answer to Research Question 2 was negative; there are no significant differences between native and nonnative speakers of French in the error categories where correction was performed. The results can be to mean that native and nonnative speakers alike corrected more errors in all the error categories in the Low group of compositions than they did in the High group.

Qualitative Results

This section will answer Research Question 3 and is divided into three parts: the questionnaire results, the interview answers, and the comments found on the students' papers.

Questionnaire Results

Of the four native speakers of French, one had completed a course in pedagogy, two had completed more than one course, and one had

Table 1
Native and Nonnative Error Correction Means

	Native			Nonnative		
	High	Low	Average	High	Low	Average
Verb	.43	.85	.64	.50	.63	.57
Noun	.47	.92	.70	.48	.77	.62
Spelling	.37	.68	.53	.36	.69	.54
Pronoun	.63	.89	.76	.62	.69	.65

Table 2
Main Effects of High/Low - Univariate F-Tests with 1, 124 D.F.

Variable	Hyp. SS	ErrorSS	Hyp. MS	ErrorMS	F	Sig. of F
Verb	2.50320	18.3013	2.5032	.14759	16.960*	.000
Noun	4.34019	11.8761	4.3401	.09578	45.316*	.000
Spelling	3.20678	17.9111	3.2067	.14444	22.200*	.000
Pron.	.85969	14.2941	.85969	.11528	7.4576*	.007

no experience in pedagogy. Of the four native speakers of English, three had done one course in pedagogy, and one had more than one course. None of the participants of the study was majoring or minoring in pedagogy. None of the TAs had been given formal guidelines pertaining to composition correction. Three of the four native speakers of French and three of the four native speakers of English indicated they had devised their own personal guidelines.

Interview Answers

Three native speakers of French and three native speakers of English reported that they did not take into consideration all the errors marked on the student's paper when they awarded the grade. One native speaker of French and one native speaker of English indicated that they did count all errors when they awarded the grade. All participants reported that they did not consider all errors to be of equal significance.

Instructors' Comments

Generally speaking, nonnative speakers of French made very few comments on the papers. If they did, their comments focused primarily on grammatical accuracy. None of the comments emphasized content, interest, originality, or organization, in any specific ways.

In general, native speakers made more comments on the students' work than did the nonnatives, but their comments remained as focused as the nonnative speakers' comments on students' linguistic accuracy. There was the one exception of one native speaker of French who asked questions about actual meaning. The answer to Research Question 3 is therefore negative. There were no differences between native and nonnative speakers of French in the area of content.

DISCUSSION

The results of the MANOVA yielded no significant differences between native and nonnative speakers of French in the number of corrections they performed in the High and Low groups of compositions.

The fact that native speakers of French corrected as many mistakes as did nonnative speakers in the Low compositions was surprising. The researcher's hypothesis, based on prior studies (Politzer, 1978; Davies, 1983; Magnan, 1982; Green & Hecht, 1985; Kobayashi, 1992; and Takashima, 1987) was that nonnative speakers of French would correct more mistakes than native speakers. In the studies mentioned above, native speakers tended to show more leniency toward errors than did nonnatives. Only one previous study by Ensz, (1982) showed that native speakers of French tended to correct more oral production errors than nonnative speakers. Perhaps, then, this behavior is particular to native speakers of French. It has been said that the French are very protective and possessive of their language. In fact, Ensz (1982) concluded that—

> While an American accent and some Anglicisms may be moderately tolerated, American speakers of French should be most concerned that they speak with the greatest possible grammatical accuracy. (137-138)

Perhaps correcting errors made by learners is an example of this behavior.

Native and nonnative speakers corrected more errors in the Low compositions than they did in the High group in all of the error categories; however, the results showed no differences between native and nonnative speakers of French in these categories. Therefore, the finding indicates that the nonnative speakers of French were as competent as native speakers when identifying grammatical mistakes.

The interview answers pertaining to which errors the participants counted in the grade show very little consistency with what was found when examining the compositions. More than one native

speaker and one nonnative speaker seemed to count all errors marked on the paper in the grade. In the margins of the student composition, they had clearly written "1/2" for each error identified. Equally puzzling was the finding that more than three of the participants seemed to consider all errors marked on the paper to be of equal importance. Their grading system resembled the above-mentioned formula. The inconsistencies found between what the participants disclosed of their grading systems and what happened in reality seem to show that the participants may think that they were following a specific correction pattern, but they in fact were not.

One of the very interesting results provided by the questionnaire was that none of the participants had been given formal guidelines pertaining to composition evaluation. It appears that this area of foreign language instruction was somewhat neglected and left up to each individual.

Equally interesting was the finding that out of the eight TAs, two (one native and one nonnative speaker of French) had no personal guidelines for the evaluation of compositions. All other participants had devised their own systems. They were largely based on linguistic accuracy, whether the TA was a native speaker of French or not.

Another striking finding upon examining the compositions was the virtual absence of instructors' comments. Most of the compositions were returned to the students bare of any feedback, negative or positive. The great majority of rough drafts bore no comments at all. Those which did had been corrected by native speakers of French, and then again, the main focus of the comments were on length, linguistic accuracy, and only once were there comments on content.

Final drafts also showed very few comments. However, there was a difference between native and nonnative speakers of French in the quantity of the comments they wrote. Overall, native speakers wrote significantly more on students' compositions than nonnatives did. Nonnative speakers' comments focused primarily on grammatical accuracy. So did the comments written by three of the native speakers of French. However, one native speaker commented on meaning and content as well as stylistics.

The general lack of comments was in complete disagreement with current research (Semke, 1984; Omaggio, 1993; Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1988) in writing and error correction. This research recommends that instructors evaluate compositions not only for their grammatical components, but also and most importantly for their content. The data gathered and examined here showed that native and nonnative speakers of French alike still viewed writing very much as a form-driven act.

CONCLUSIONS

Students' compositions in the target language are examples of in-

terlanguage at work. They contain many mistakes in linguistic accuracy. As recent studies demonstrate, the systematic correction of all mistakes does not necessarily aid students in acquiring grammatical structures; however, a certain degree of attention must be paid to errors in accuracy. Just how much attention must be devoted to those errors remains to be determined. This research was conducted in hopes that it could help define more precise indicators as to what kinds of errors should be corrected. If the primary goal of language learning is to be able to communicate with native speakers of a given language, then the question is, What do native speakers of French consider serious errors?

Most Important Error Categories

Judging from the results, all error categories (verb, noun, spelling, and pronoun) were given a great deal of attention. It appears that native speakers of French behave as "intolerantly," or at least identify as many mistakes in these categories, as do nonnatives.

Composition Content

While the majority of the participants stated in the questionnaire that they graded compositions both on grammatical accuracy and content, none of them actually made any comments as to whether the essays were interesting or not, original or unimaginative, or whether they were well or poorly organized.

It appears that, in spite of what current research recommends as far as composition correction is concerned, instructors continue to pay attention solely to the grammatical component of their students' compositions.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The implications that can be drawn from the results of the present study touch on three areas: TA preparation, error correction, and classroom instruction. The lack of knowledge on composition correction can be interpreted as a lack of knowledge on testing in general. Foreign language teachers are expected to create tests almost on a daily basis without any knowledge of test construct, of devising rubrics, of setting criteria and of grading the tests. Methods courses must emphasize not only teaching but also testing, and such courses must prepare our teachers to design good essay type tests with accompanying rubrics and grading criteria.

Another area of concern deals with interlanguage. Compositions, especially at the early stages of language proficiency, will contain samples of interlanguage, therefore, our profession needs to address the many kinds of foreign language learner interlanguage mappings. Such studies, as Garrett (1991) suggested need to concentrate on interlanguage as presented in contextualized and communicative writing samples.

NOTES:

1. In Green and Hecht's study (1985), sixty German students (aged 15) wrote replies in English to English letters of elicitation. Each letter was graded by three German teachers of English and five native speakers of English, all of them teachers (three taught English, one foreign languages, and another physics). Forty-six native speakers of English (all students) also wrote replies to the same letters of elicitation. Each letter was graded by two native speakers of English (other than the five native speakers mentioned previously) who also taught English. The letters written by native speakers of English served as the authenticity check for the task. Overall, there was a large measure of disagreement over errors between the native and the nonnative speaking groups and a very low interrater reliability.
2. The seven categories developed by Magnan (1988) were collapsed into four in this study because, after looking at the collected data, the researcher realized that the students' writing did not contain much sophistication in several areas such as verb tense/mood, object pronouns, prepositions, and relative pronouns.

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APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please indicate if you are a native or nonnative speaker of French.
   __ native __nonnative

2. Please indicate if you are a native or nonnative speaker of English.
   __ native __nonnative

3. If you are both a nonnative speaker of French and English, please indicate your native language(s).

4. What is your formal training in pedagogy (if any)?

   _____ none

   _____ one course

   _____ more than one course

   _____ it is your minor area of specialization

   _____ it is your minor area of specialization

5. Were you given any formal guidelines pertaining to the correction of compositions this semester?
   __ yes __ no

6. If you answered yes to question #5, please indicate the guidelines you received.

7. If you answered no to question #5, please indicate whether you had personal guidelines.
   __ yes __ no

8. If you answered yes to question #7, please indicate what your guidelines were. What criteria did you use in correcting your students' compositions? (i.e. grammatical accuracy, vocabulary, etc.)

APPENDIX B
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. When you grade/correct compositions, are all errors marked considered in the grade a student receives? In other words, do all errors marked on the student's paper count in the grade?
   __ yes __ no, explain:

2. When you grade/correct compositions, are all errors marked and considered in the grade of equal importance and weight in the grade? In other words, do all errors marked and considered in the grade weigh the same amount in the grade?
   __ yes __ no, explain:

3. Please indicate whether you are:

__ a native speaker of French
__ a nonnative speaker of French

ESL Students' Opinions About Instruction in Pronunciation

MATT MADDEN
ZENA MOORE

The goal of this study was to make preliminary observations about the attitudes of a group of ESOL learners toward pronunciation in their language learning experience. Not many studies have included language learner's opinions about their own learning. This study attempts to begin adding their voices to the dialogue. A secondary goal of the study was to compare findings across sections, such as male versus female, speakers of Indo-European versus those of non-Indo-European languages, and humanities students versus science students. The study found only slight differences across groups of students, but found in general that students valued pronunciation as a very important part of instruction; they needed more correction to their pronunciation both in and out of the classroom; and they wanted more emphasis placed on pronunciation. The findings challenge pedagogical principles about error correction and instruction in pronunciation.

INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation is often simplified to mean the production of phonetic/phonemic sounds of a language. Teachers and students assume that mastering pronunciation is simply a matter of perfecting the production of an inventory of consonants and vowels. While there is no denying that phonetics at the segmental level is certainly crucial in pronunciation, suprasegmental, or prosodic, features of language, such as stress and intonation, are equally important. Yet these aspects of pronunciation receive little attention in the ESL classroom, probably because English does not have straightforward rules about suprasegmentals and stress compared to other languages, such as Czech, Polish, and Swahili (Ladefoged, 1993).

Effective teaching of pronunciation, according to Pennington and Richards and Richards (1986), must include segmental features, voice-setting features, and prosodic features. *Segmental features* are the minimal phonetic units in a language, the phonemes, which, along with their allophones, make up the sound inventory of a language. *Voice-setting features* are the "general articulatory characteristics of stretches of speech" (Pennington and Richards, p. 209) which account for a speaker's voice quality, like the huskiness demonstrated by many Japanese and Arabic males and the high pitch used by women

in some cultures. These voice settings features are often carried over to the speaker's L2 pronunciation with a distinct and recognizable voice quality.

The third set of features which Pennington and Richards (1986) identified is *prosodic features*, or suprasegmental features, which include stress, intonation, and coarticulation. Stress is the emphasis of one syllable over other syllables. According to Orion (1988) multisyllabic words show a stressed/unstressed distinction (syllable or word stress), and phrases and sentences show stress on their most salient words (word or sentence stress). Stress is used to emphasize or contrast words, or to indicate syntactic function, as in the case of words which change from nouns into verbs due solely to a shift in stress, like object (noun) and object (verb). Intonation is the "pattern of pitch changes" that occurs over a stretch of speech (Ladefoged, 1993, p. 109). Intonation introduces and emphasizes salient information and carries affective information about the speaker's attitude, indicating whether a stretch of speech is a statement, a question, a command, or any other type of utterance. Finally, coarticulation is "the overlapping of adjacent articulations" (Ladefoged, 1993, p. 292).

Pronunciation and the Language Learner

In the last two decades, researchers have recognized the affective domain as a significant variable in second language acquisition. Pronunciation is the most obvious and unavoidable marker of a language learner's proficiency, and regardless of whether that proficiency correlates to other components, it makes sense that it could be a source of considerable anxiety and stress. On the other hand, nonnative pronunciation may be seen by the language learner as a mark of identification with a certain group, such as an immigrant community (Pennington and Richards, 1986).

Teaching Pronunciation

Pennington and Richards (1986) outlined two competing approaches to teaching pronunciation: the "phonemic-based view" and the "discourse-based view." The traditional phonemic-based view emphasizes the correct pronunciation of isolated sounds and words, and it may be the more popular teaching technique. Teaching methods such as Audiolingualism and the Silent Way favor a phonemic-based approach to teaching pronunciation.

The newer discourse-based view of pronunciation instruction is more appropriately used in Notional-Functional Syllabi, the Natural Approach, and, to a lesser extent, in methods like Total Physical Response, which emphasize comprehension and communication over accuracy and fluency. As a result, pronunciation tends to be deemphasized or overlooked in such instruction.

In a review of current theories

and methods, Knowles (1995) found that the phonemic-based approach still dominates the methodology, and the emphasis is still "on form rather than meaning" (p. 287). Knowles further notes that "there is little consideration of problems from the student's point of view" and concludes that "it is clear that we do not yet have an adequate theoretical basis for the teaching of spoken language" (p. 288)The dominant view in pedagogy is that correction should be avoided (Brown, 1990), partly because correction is associated with learning and not with acquisition and partly because correction can cause anxiety in the language learner, thus preventing effective learning. However, the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines make distinctions between pronunciation skills for all levels. For example, a novice-high level speaker's "pronunciation may still be strongly influenced by L1," and the advanced-plus speaker "often shows remarkable fluency and ease of speech" (ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, 1988). The guidelines suggest that teachers should give as much attention to teaching pronunciation as they do other linguistic features, like vocabulary and grammar. Yet, based on limited research findings, it would appear that contrary to the arguments on effective teaching techniques, the most significant factor in developing correct pronunciation is not the teaching technique but the individual learning style (McDonald et al., 1994).

Pronunciation and Language Acquisition

In first language acquisition, children learn pronunciation inductively by absorbing and reproducing the sounds in their environment. Neufeld and Schneiderman (1980) pointed out that a five-year-old child speaks with a native accent and a highly-developed sensitivity to prosody even before s/he has mastered the more complicated suprasegmental features of the native language. A child learns all components of pronunciation simultaneously. Though a child may not have mastered subtle shades of irony or skepticism, s/he does display competence in prosodic features through an ability to express doubt, puzzlement, and mockery, as well as an ability to comprehend various sentence types.

Thus, while Neufeld and Schneiderman (1980) distinguished two orders of competence, they argued that these components should be seen as developing simultaneously, and not necessarily in sequence, suggesting that the full range of pronunciation components should be taught from the beginning of instruction.

Finally, oral proficiency implies development of several segments of speech: pronunciation, accent, appropriateness of response, comprehensibility, intonation, vocabulary, and grammatical accuracy. Higgs (1984) believes that teachers should apportion their attention to

the speech segments depending on the level of the students. Specifically, acquiring vocabulary and perfecting pronunciation should be the foci of instruction at the novice and intermediate levels. The pedagogical implications are even more striking when we consider that the greater number of our students fall within these ranges.

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY

Research on pronunciation is relatively scarce compared to that on other components of language learning, such as grammar, communicative competence, and sociocultural awareness, except for the numerous studies of native speaker reaction to nonnative pronunciation (Giles et al., 1995; Munro & Dering, 1995; Albrechtsen et al., 1980). The goal of this paper is to make preliminary observations about the attitudes of a group of English learners toward pronunciation in their language learning experience. Furthermore, language learners' opinions about learning are rarely solicited in current research. The present study attempts to begin adding their voices to the dialogue.

Research Questions

The primary goal of the study was to investigate students' experiences in pronunciation and their perceptions of the definition and importance of good pronunciation. A secondary goal was to investigate possible differences between groups, such as gender, major areas of study, and nationalities.

The Subjects

All 49 subjects, who were intermediate-level ESL students studying at a large state university, were respondents to a survey questionnaire. They fell between the ages 23 and 33. Of the respondents, 23 were male, 22 were female and 4 did not indicate their gender. The students represented a wide range of nationalities. Thirty-six students spoke Asian languages. Eight were speakers of Spanish, three of Portuguese, and one each of German, Italian, Kyrgyz, and Russian. Nineteen were humanities students, and sixteen were science students, and the rest did not indicate their majors.

Method and Data Collection

A pilot questionnaire was drafted and administered to a group of 25 students in the semester prior to the actual study. A modified questionnaire, designed with four categories, became the data-collecting instrument. (See Appendix.) The first part asked for biographical information. The second part of the questionnaire dealt with students' language learning histories. The third part of the questionnaire elicited learners' personal attitudes about pronunciation, including their opinions about the definition of good pronunciation and their own judgments and native speakers' judgments of their pronunciation proficiency. Finally, a fourth part asked questions about correction, both inside and outside the classroom.

Limitations of the Study

Before the results of the questionnaire are discussed, it is important to invoke the limitations of this study. It should be stated that the analyses of the results apply only to the population under study—49 international students studying intermediate-level ESL at a large state university. Any inference about more general populations is hypothetical and would need to be substantiated by further research. On the other hand, the size and diversity of the subjects might well indicate that the sample is representative of its population.

Another limitation of the study was in the area of analysis. Because the study focused on students opinions and perceptions, data across gender, academic areas, and language groups were compared only in four areas: (1) reasons for studying English, (2) definition of pronunciation, (3) attitudes to wards error correction, and (4) satisfaction with their pronunciation skills. No analysis was conducted in the areas that dealt with instructional time nor with instructional techniques.

RESULTS

Language Learner Background

Reasons for Studying English

About half of the respondents (49%) chose "personal growth" and 29% indicated "research" as their main reason for studying English (Figure 1). Ten (approximately 20%) of the respondents chose "career" as a reason, and the rest (2%) indicated "other" reasons for learning English but did not stipulate. (See Figure 1).

Male Versus Female

More women generally chose personal growth as their reason for studying English (F=68%; M=35%) (Figure 2). More men were studying English for research reasons (F=18%; M=43%). An almost equal numbers of men and women chose "career" (F=23%; M=22%). (See Figure 2).

Indo-European Versus Non-Indo-European Language Speakers

There were few differences in purpose between the two language groups. An equal number of students chose to study English for personal growth, academic reasons, and career purposes.

Humanities Versus Science Students

There were few differences between students in the fields of humanities and sciences. More humanities students elected "personal growth" as a reason for studying English, but not significantly more than science students, who leaned slightly more toward "research."

Time Spent Studying English

Although all 49 students had studied both in conventional and nonconventional settings, they had not studied English for equal periods of time. For example, 43 (88%) had studied English at secondary schools, but only 21 (41%) had between one to six year of instruction. Thirty-seven respondents had studied

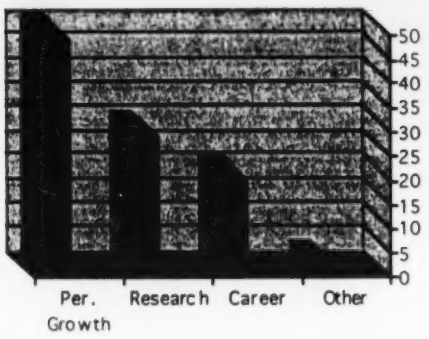

Figure 1. Reasons for Studying English: Total Response

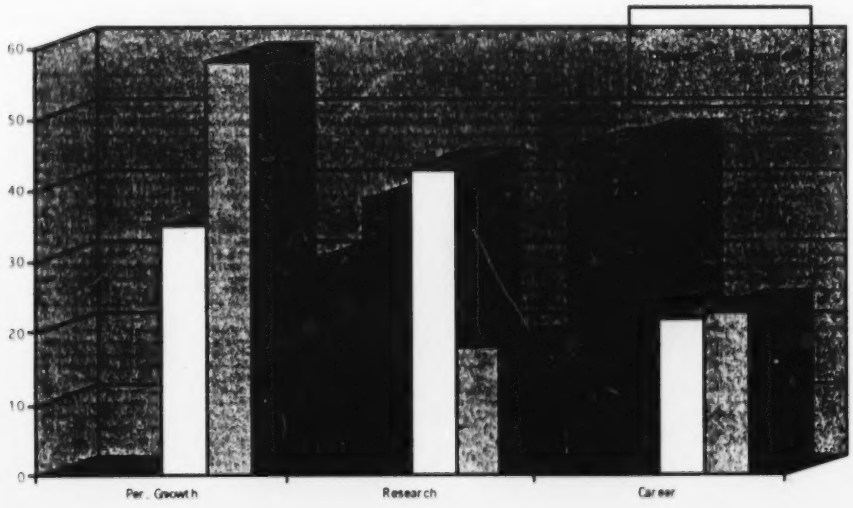

Figure 2. Reasons for Studying English: Female vs Male

English as undergraduates, but only nine had studied English in graduate school. Sixteen (33%) had spent about two years in some form of English instruction outside the conventional school system. Thus, although all the students were studying at the intermediate level, there appeared to be major differences in their experiences and exposure to English.

Time Spent on Instruction in Pronunciation

Responses indicated differences in time spent on pronunciation in instruction prior to coming to the university. For example, one student reported having had 12 hours a week of pronunciation instruction, and three (6%) had spent no time studying pronunciation. Fourteen (29%) had received pronunciation practice one hour a week, eleven (22%) less than one hour a week. Seventeen students (34%) had received more than an hour but less than two hours a week. Three students indicated that they had two or more hours a week. In all, just slightly over half the group (57%) had received a minimum of one hour a week or less in pronunciation instruction. (See Figure 3).

Types of Pronunciation Instruction

Forty-two respondents (86%) indicated that they had studied segmentals before; forty-one (84%) had studied stress, and thirty (61%) had studied intonation. Twenty-three respondents (47%) claimed to have studied all three components; thirteen (27%) had studied only segmentals and stress, and three respondents indicated other combinations or individual components.

Teaching Techniques for Pronunciation

Forty-three respondents (88%) indicated that they had used pattern drills, thirteen (27%) had used language lab exercise, and nine (18%) listed alternative instruction techniques. Eleven (22%) used pattern drills and exercises in the language lab, and four indicated different individual or combinations of techniques. Among these, television and cassette tapes (presumably outside language lab) were the principal alternative techniques listed. Other techniques listed were "[talking] with friend," "jingle exercise" (no description given), and "phonetic chart."

Responses showed that 25 (61%) had used some form of phonetic alphabet, and all twenty-five found it to be helpful in their study of pronunciation.

Defining "Good" Pronunciation

Twenty (41%) respondents defined good pronunciation as being able to be understood and twenty-eight (57%) defined it as sounding like a native speaker (Figure 4). One student circled both definitions. While all students thought that good pronunciation was important, 76% thought it was very important. The majority of students (71%) were not satisfied with their current pronunciation (Figure 5); 14% answered

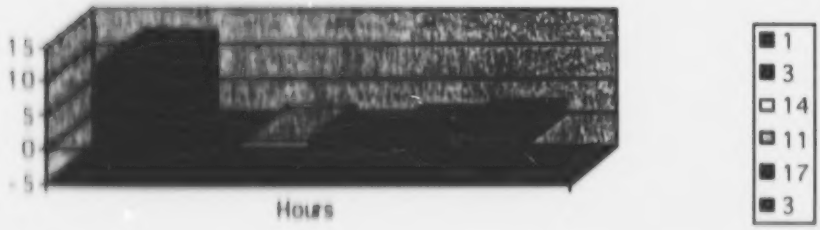

Figure 3. Number of Students and Hours of Instruction

"yes," and 6%) answered either "so-so" or "more or less." Four respondents (8%) did not answer this question. In responding to the question on native speakers' irritation by their pronunciation, 3 of the 49 respondents said that it never bothered them. Nine said that it rarely bothered them. Twenty-seven said that it bothered them sometimes. Nine said it often bothered them and one did not know.

Male Versus Female

Male subjects' responses split evenly between "sounding like a native speaker" and "being easy to understand." Women favored "sounding like a native speaker" (68% Vs 32%). Although both men and women were generally not satisfied with their current pronunciation, a larger number of women (32%) than men (9%) answered "yes." Both genders generally felt that native speakers were "sometimes" irritated by their pronunciation (F=50%; M=56%), although men were more inclined to say that native speakers were "often" irritated (F=9%; M=26%).

Indo-European Versus Non-Indo-European Language Speakers

While there was only a slight difference in how IE speakers and non-IE speakers defined good pronunciation (IE=77%; non-IE=56%) as "sounding like a native speaker," there was a startling difference in personal satisfaction with pronunciation. Not one of the IE speakers expressed satisfaction with his or her current pronunciation, compared to 25% of the non-IE speakers who were satisfied.

Humanities Versus Science Student Responses

Sixty-three percent of the humanities students defined good pronunciation as "sounding like a native speaker," while science students answered this question almost 50/50. Thus, there is a slight

Figure 4. Respondents' Definitions of Good Pronunciation

Figure 5. Respondents' Satisfaction with Pronunciation

suggestion that humanities students have more integrative motivation for learning English, while science students tend toward a more pragmatic, instrumental motivation.

Error Correction

Forty-six respondents (94%) wanted their pronunciation corrected, one (2%) answered "no"; and two (4%) did not answer the question. The one "no" answer did not offer a reason for that response. Those who wanted their pronunciation corrected simply reiterated their dissatisfaction with their current pronunciation; for example: "I think my pronunciation is so bad," and, "I can't pronounce clearly." Six students noted that with in-class correction they can learn what their errors are and then work on improving them (". . . because the best way to learn is when you make a mistake, be corrected, and after, work on your mistake"). Three respondents felt that it was important to be corrected by native speakers, and several oth-

ers wrote that it was a good way—and, in two cases, the only way—to improve one's pronunciation.

Asked whether they liked to have their pronunciation corrected outside of the classroom with explanations, 39 respondents (80%) answered "yes"; 5 (10%) answered "no"; 3 (6%) answered "sometimes"; and 2 (4%) did not answer the question. Reasons given were a belief in the value of identifying errors in order to correct them, and a general desire to improve pronunciation.

Furthermore, three respondents liked the idea of their friends helping to correct their pronunciation errors, and six respondents expressed a belief that any opportunity to correct pronunciation was worthwhile, whether in the classroom or not. ("I want to correct my pronunciation at any time"). One, who responded in the negative, gave as a reason a lack of exposure to native speakers outside the classroom. The other four negative responses expressed skepticism about the usefulness of correction outside the classroom: one respondent believed that there was too much exposure to language that was "abnormal and slang;" another was unsure of whose pronunciation to trust ("I don't know who can speak proper English"); another simply asserted that the classroom was "the best place to correct pronunciation."

Male /Female Differences

Men and women both favored correction and more time spent on pronunciation in class, with the single difference that men seemed more reluctant to have their pronunciation corrected out of class (F=5%; M=22%).

Indo-European Versus Non-Indo-European Language Speakers

The responses were similar between the two groups, with one interesting small difference in that all IE speakers (100%) favored correction outside as well as in the classroom, while a small percentage (16%) of non-IE speakers were against correction outside of the classroom. This discrepancy could be due to personality or sociocultural differences; the difference and the sample size are too small to reach a conclusion.

Additional Learner Observations

An open question invited respondents to add any additional observations they wished to share about pronunciation. Only seven respondents made additional comments. Three of these observations had to do with suprasegmental pronunciation; one respondent wrote that, for Asian students, "intonation is more important than pronunciation," while two others noted that they would like to learn "much more intonation" and "the pronunciation of whole sentences." Two respondents requested more time to be spent on pronunciation in class; the remaining two pointed out that pronunciation was easier to learn as a child or at the very beginning of instruction.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

In summary, no statistically significant differences were found between male and female responses within this particular group of language learners. There seemed to be a general tendency, however, that men showed a slightly higher level of anxiety about pronunciation: more of them were unsatisfied with their own level of proficiency, more found that their pronunciation irritated native speakers, and more were disinclined to have their pronunciation corrected outside of class.

It was predicted that native speakers of non-Indo-European languages (non-IE) would generally respond more negatively than speakers of Indo-European languages (IE). This was predicted largely because the former group is learning a language from a different language family. English has much less in common with Japanese or Mandarin than it does with Spanish or Portuguese. In fact, the opposite turned out to be true as a general trend, although the differences were not statistically significant.

The majority of IE speakers (IE=77%; non-IE=56%) defined good pronunciation as "sounding like a native speaker," while non-IE speakers' responses were more evenly split between the two options. It is interesting to note that no IE speakers expressed satisfaction with their current pronunciation, yet 25% of the non-IE speakers answered that they were satisfied. This might suggest a different scale of judgment being used by the two groups, where IE speakers give themselves higher standards because either they can distinguish levels of pronunciation better, or they feel they should be able to pronounce a language from the same language family.

The rest of the responses were parallel between the two groups, with one interesting small difference being that all IE speakers favored correction outside as well as in the classroom, but a small percentage (16%) of non-IE speakers were against correction outside of the classroom. Again, this discrepancy could be due to personality or sociocultural differences; the difference and the sample size are too small to reach a conclusion.

The study found that the most popular reason for studying English was "personal growth." "Research" and "career" lagged somewhat behind for the group as a whole. Somewhat surprising was the finding that there was little difference in the time spent on pronunciation at both the early stages of instruction and at later stages, probably indicating lack of knowledge on the instructor's part or time constraints in teaching.

The majority of respondents listed one hour or less of pronunciation per week for both levels of instruction. One hour per week is perhaps acceptable for an intermediate class, but at the beginning level (ILR 1/ACTFL Novice), roughly 27% of class time should be devoted to pronunciation according to Higgs' Hypothesized Relative Contribution

Model (Higgs, 1984, p. 6). Pronunciation instruction should peak at the beginning level, decrease to about 8% at ILR 2+ (ACTFL Advanced Plus), and then rise again to 20% at ILR 5.

Respondents reported studying stress almost as much as individual sounds, with slightly less time spent on intonation. Almost half the respondents studied all three components. The results suggest that the phonemic-based view of pronunciation instruction did not dominate entirely. Although the majority of the students studied intonation and stress, the dominant teaching technique was the pattern drill, to the exclusion of practice of language in context. Students used the language labs to a small degree, and few different or innovative methods were recorded in the "other techniques" section. Pattern drills and language labs are both based on rote memorization and contrived, unnatural speech situations that are antithetical to a communicative syllabus.

The Monitor Model and teaching for communicative competence discourage explicit instruction in grammatical rules. Consequently, both theory and experience would predict that respondents would not necessarily find the use of a phonetic alphabet as a helpful teaching aid. Thus it was surprising to find that among the respondents who had used a phonetic alphabet, all of them found it useful to their study of pronunciation. Ausubel (in Brown, 1993, p. 59) suggested that certain adults could profit from grammatical explanations because of the onset of formal operations, which make them more analytic and self-aware than child learners.

To define good pronunciation as "sounding like a native speaker" suggests an adherence to a more traditional view, which says that learning pronunciation involves the mastery of every phonological detail that characterizes the target language. Except in the case of children, this goal is extremely difficult to achieve. The definition "being easy to understand" falls in line with the communicative or discourse-based view of language learning, where comprehension is more important than structural accuracy. It would seem likely that the majority of learners would define good pronunciation as "sounding like a native speaker." The study found only a slight difference between sounding like a native speaker" and the alternative "being easy to understand."

It was clear that respondents considered pronunciation an important factor in being a proficient speaker of English. Yet, few respondents were satisfied with their current pronunciation. It would be interesting to discover whether respondents judged their current proficiency against a native speaker criterion or against a profile description in keeping with their instruction level. It would also be interesting to know if instructors make the distinction between these two standards clear to the students.

The popular language learning theory which emphasizes lowering the affective filter and which generally favors acquisition over learning and communicative discourse over error analysis would predict that students should not want correction either in or out of class. On the one hand, many, if not most, students come from traditional educational backgrounds where the authority of teacher may not be questioned. On the other hand, the respondents in this study all seemed highly motivated to learn English to the best of their abilities and so might have been willing to accept any help they could get.

Respondents answered overwhelmingly in the affirmative that they wanted corrective feedback in and out of class. The respondents who gave negative answers thought that correction outside of the classroom was in some way pedagogically unsound. The discrepancy here suggests that theorists might want to rethink their ideas about error correction and its application to the classroom. It would be desirable to concentrate either on "low anxiety" correction and feedback techniques or on educating language learners about the limited usefulness of correction suggested by certain theories and studies (Omaggio-Hadley, p.83).

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

Research has shown that, as with other components of language, there is not one most effective method or technique for teaching pronunciation (Pennington, 1986; McDonald, 1994). Furthermore, studies on pronunciation suggest that what is most desirable is an approach that combines a communicative, discourse-based approach to language instruction, with sensitive and effective attention to the full range of components that make up pronunciation and an understanding of the value of pronunciation as "a dynamic component of conversational fluency" (Pennington, 1986 p. 212; Knowles, 1995)

Language learners in this study almost unanimously desired to spend more time studying pronunciation in class. The respondents expressed a similarly unanimous eagerness to have their pronunciation corrected in class and, to a lesser extent, out of class. The fact that the majority of respondents had studied suprasegmentals as well as the simpler phonemic aspects of English did not mean that they had satisfactory instruction or practice in pronunciation. Effective techniques need to be developed to make the instruction of all the components of pronunciation meaningful. An interesting implication for instruction is the 61% of respondents who found using a phonetic alphabet as an instruction aid very useful. Teachers might therefore want to consider regularly including phonetics exercises in the lessons.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The present study suggested numerous directions for further in-

quiry. First, a more extensive administration of a questionnaire similar to the one in this study might yield more significant statistical data. It might also be more effective to administer a questionnaire in the native language of the language learners. This would mean either finding a homogeneous group of non-English speakers or else designing a questionnaire for English learners of foreign languages.

Second, a study could be made comparing language students' attitudes about learning pronunciation with those of their instructors. In a series of studies, pronunciation was one of the most consistent points of conflict between learners and teachers (Kern, 1995).

Thirdly, considering the respondents' insistence on the importance of correction in this study, it would be worth further exploring how this can be done effectively and with minimum anxiety or stress by experimental studies designed to chart learners' pronunciation skills over time.

Finally, Pennington noted the different voice-settings men and women use in Japanese and some Arabic cultures, and several other languages have phonological variants for men and women (Brown, p. 240). The various cross tabulations along lines of gender, class, status, language family, and academic field suggest areas for further research.

CONCLUSION

This study will be most useful if it is considered as a preliminary survey which can be used to point to future areas of research. This attempt to bring language learners' voices into the discourse about language acquisition has shown that their opinions tend to be quite different from those of many theorists and teachers. This finding in itself suggests that it would be illuminating to design language learner questionnaires studying other components of language as well. The results of this questionnaire suggest that the instruction and learning of pronunciation may play a much more important part in second language acquisition than is indicated by either traditional or current theories, and that in order to learn how best to teach a language, teachers and theorists would do well to take into consideration the opinions of the people their theories are designed for: language learners.

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APPENDIX

A QUESTIONNAIRE
TOWARD A CASE STUDY OF LANGUAGE LEARNER ATTITUDES ABOUT PRONUNCIATION

The objective of this study is to learn about language learners' perceptions of pronunciation in learning a foreign language. Please briefly answer the following questions.

Age: Gender: Native Language:

Country:

Field of Study:

Student Status (circle one):
a. International student
b. Texas resident
c. Resident alien

Why are you studying English?
a. research (mainly reading & writing)
b. career (teaching, etc.)
c. personal growth
d. other _____

1. How many years have you studied English at each level of schooling?
a. Elementary school (up to grade 6)_____
b. Secondary school (grade 7-12)_____
c. College (undergraduate) _____
d. Graduate school_____
e. Other: _____
2. About how many hours per week did you spend studying pronunciation when you were first learning English?_____
3. If you are still studying English, how much class time do you spend studying pronunciation now?_____
4. Which of these aspects of pronunciation have you studied in an English class? (write a check to mean "yes")
a. Individual sounds (vowels, consonants)_____
b. Stress (for emphasis, word differences) _____
c. Intonation (questions, exclamations)_____
5. How were you taught pronunciation? (write a check)
a. Pattern drills (teacher models and student repeats)_____
b. Exercises in a language lab_____
c. Other techniques (please describe below)

_____

6a. Have you used any form of phonetic alphabet when learning about pronunciation?_____

6b. If the answer is yes, did you find it helpful?_____

7. Would you define good pronunciation as (circle one):

a. Being easy to understand

b. Sounding like a native speaker

8. How important do you feel pronunciation is in becoming a good speaker of English? (circle one)

a. Very important

b. Quite important

c. Not very important

d. Not important at all

9. Are you comfortable with your current pronunciation?_____

10. Do you feel that native speakers are irritated by your pronunciation? (circle one)

a. Never

b. Rarely

c. Sometimes

d. Often

e. Don't know

11. Would you like to spend more time studying pronunciation in your current class?

12. Do you like to have your pronunciation corrected in class? ____

13. If YES to Q.12, why? _____

14. If NO to Q.12, why? _____

15. Do you like to have your pronunciation corrected out of class?__

16. If YES to Q.15, why? _____

17. If NO to Q.15, why? _____

Please feel free to add any other observations you have about pronunciation. Thanks for your cooperation.

Factors of Attrition in Japanese Language Enrollments

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The status of Japanese as a foreign language in the United States has risen dramatically in the past ten years, to the extent that Japanese has become the fifth most commonly taught language in U.S. institutions of higher education. Yet, the student attrition rate for Japanese courses has been reported to be as much as 80%. The present study investigates factors possibly contributing to attrition in Japanese language classes at the university level. Variables included in this study are students' affective variables (for example, attitudes, motivation, and classroom personality), their backgrounds (for example, year in school, major, and length of stay in Japan), and their final grades. Statistical analyses revealed that learners' final grades and strength of motivation are significant contributors to predictions of attrition in both beginning and intermediate classes. Several pedagogical implications are discussed in relation to achievement and motivational factors.

INTRODUCTION

Americans' perceptions of the study of Japanese as a foreign language have undergone dramatic changes in the past ten years. No longer is Japanese perceived as an esoteric language. On the contrary, by 1990 it had become "the fifth most commonly taught" (Modern Language Association, 1990) language in U.S. institutions of higher education. Despite this increase in popularity, the attrition rate for Japanese learners has been reported to be "as much as 80%" (Mills, Samuels, and Sherwood, 1987, p. 19). Among the reasons cited are (1) the inherent difficulty of the language, (2) curriculum conflicts, (3) a lack of programs available locally for the interested student, and (4) the absence of a future payoff that acts as an incentive for students to devote the time and effort needed to learn this language. While these reasons are intuitively appealing, to date little empirical evidence exists to delineate the sources of attrition in Japanese language enrollments (e.g., Kataoka, 1986; Jorden and Lambert, 1991). Furthermore, research in second/foreign language education generally focuses on students who are currently enrolled in language classes and tends to neglect students who have already dropped out for one reason or another. With the high attrition rate among Japanese language students, there is an urgent need to critically examine why students discontinue Japanese language studies and how the high attrition rate might be curtailed.

The present study investigates possible contributing factors related to attrition in Japanese language classes at the university level. Variables included in

this study are students' affective variables (e.g., attitudes, motivation, and class room personality), their backgrounds (e.g., year in school, major, and length of time spent in Japan), and their final grades. The strategic role of Japan in the world and the importance of the USA-Japan relationship both demand that we prepare more students who are linguistically as well as culturally competent in Japanese. The findings of the present study will contribute not only toward a better understanding of why students decide not to continue studying Japanese language but also toward improving instructional approaches and teacher training.

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Motivation, Attitudes, and Student Enrollment Attrition

Research in student enrollment attrition in second/foreign language classes has been scarce. Researchers (e.g., Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985) have explored possible relationships among motivation/attitudes, persistence, and second/foreign language learning and have identified characteristics of continuing students and discontinuing students. In Canada, for example, Gardner and Smythe (1975) studied ninth-, tenth-, and eleventh-grade students of French in Ontario. The results of their study indicated that motivational and attitudinal differences were more consistent predictors for continuing and discontinuing students than were differences in aptitude. Similarly, Gardner, Smythe, Clement, and Gliksman (1976) conducted a three-year longitudinal study to examine the role of attitudes and motivation from different perspectives, such as second language achievement, language dropouts, and classroom behavior of students at five grade levels (5, 7, 9, 10, and 11) learning French as a second language in seven different geographic regions in Canada. The results of the study revealed that clusters of motivational factors such as motivational intensity, desire to learn French, and attitudes toward learning French correlated the highest with the intention to continue or discontinue French study the following year.

In Australia, Baldauf and Lawrence (1990) examined high attrition rates among 459 eighth grade students studying foreign languages (French, Japanese, and Indonesian) in high schools. Two major sources were hypothesized as significant contributing factors for the high attrition rates: variables related to students' sociocultural background (such as socioeconomic status, gender, and achievement) and those related to their affective domain (e.g., integrative and instrumental motivation, personal attributes, parental influence, and teacher influence). Results of the study revealed that, in the affective domain, variables such as integrative motivation, parental influence, instrumental motivation, teacher influence, and personal attributes, in that order, were significant factors, while in sociocultural background factors such as gender (50% of girls continuing as compared with 38% of boys), achievement, and language teachers

were significant variables in student attrition rates.

In the United States, Bartley (1970), using the Foreign Language Attitude Scale, investigated the "importance of the attitude factor in language dropout" (p. 383) among eighth-grade students enrolled in German, French, and Spanish classes. According to Bartley, there was a significant difference between the "dropout" group and the "continuing" group in their attitudes toward the target languages. Furthermore, the attitude of the dropout group deteriorated significantly in six months while that of the continuing group remained stable. Similarly, Ramage (1990) investigated 138 high-school students who were learning French or Spanish. The study revealed that students are more likely to continue the study of French or Spanish if they are not taking it as a requirement, if they receive high grades in class, if they are interested in cultures, and if they are interested in becoming proficient in the target language. One of the most significant findings, however, is that "continuers attributed low importance to fulfilling a requirement as a reason for taking a foreign language and instead indicated other reasons such as an interest in culture and an interest in attaining proficiency in all language skills" (p. 201). In other words, the continuing students are more intrinsically motivated while the discontinuing students are extrinsically motivated. Furthermore, a noteworthy finding in this study is that learners' attitudes toward the target language and the teacher did not account for their discontinuation, because they had "fairly positive attitudes toward the teacher and course" (p. 211), contrary to what earlier studies discovered (Gardner and Smythe, 1975; Gardner et al., 1976).

Attrition Among Japanese Language Students

As mentioned earlier, to date, there are little existing data on possible causes for attrition among Japanese language students at the postsecondary level. A study by Kataoka (1986) examined reasons for attrition of Japanese language learners at three different universities. Forty-six percent of them gave a heavy course load and/or conflict as the most likely reason, while six percent of the students gave poor performance as the most likely reason for discontinuing Japanese. Twenty-one percent of the students gave graduation and/or transfer as the reason. Kataoka states that engineering and science students' attrition rate is high due to the demanding nature of their major course work, although they are among the best students in Japanese classes.

A survey conducted by Jorden and Lambert (1991) also provides interesting insights into why postsecondary Japanese language students might decide to discontinue from three different perspectives (program director, teacher, and students). Program directors and teachers tend to attribute the reasons for attrition to the general difficulty of the language, the time required for preparation, a general lack of time, and the time it takes to reach useful proficiency. Stu-

dents give reasons such as leaving school and schedule conflict, not the general difficulty of the language, for discontinuing Japanese language study. The authors recommend a further "in-depth study of high enrollment attrition—its causes and its possible cures" (p. 182).

Based on the review of the literature, the present study investigates possible contributing factors for attrition in university-level Japanese language enrollments. In particular, the study examines learners' affective variables such as attitudes, motivation, and classroom personality, level of achievement, and student backgrounds as possible sources for the continuation or discontinuation of Japanese language classes.

The following research questions were explored in this study.

1. What student characteristics contribute to predicting attrition in Japanese language classes at the university level? Are there different characteristics depending on language levels (beginning and intermediate level)?

2. What motivation types contribute to predicting attrition in enrollments for beginning and intermediate level university Japanese students?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subjects were 213 students enrolled in the fall semester of beginning (134) and intermediate (79) levels of Japanese courses at a southwestern university (see Table 1). Among the beginning-level students, by gender there were 75 male and 59 female students; by year in school there were 45 freshmen, 33 sophomores, 24 seniors, and 16 graduate students. Of the 79 intermediate students, 43 were males and 36 were females. Four of this group were freshmen, 20 were sophomores, 17 were juniors, 31 were seniors, and 7 were graduate students. One student of this group was a non-status student.

Instruction

Beginning Japanese classes met for six hours a week, and intermediate classes met five hours a week for fifteen weeks during fall and spring semesters. Instruction in the beginning and intermediate classes were designed to develop the four skills and cultural understanding. In the classroom, more time was allocated for speaking and listening activities (60%) than reading and writing activities (40%). Classroom instruction for the beginning level was conducted at a rate of five days per one lesson. The first three days were devoted to the introduction of new vocabulary and grammar and oral activities; the fourth day focused on reading and writing activities; and the fifth day was spent on communicative activities based on daily situations in order to encourage use and retention of the grammar and vocabulary introduced during the week. Intermediate classes were organized similarly to the beginning classes; however, because there were fewer classroom hours,

Table 1
Summary of Student Enrollment of First Semester of Beginning and Intermediate Classes (N = 213)

	Language Level			
	Beginning (n=134)		Intermediate (n=79)	
	n	P (%)	n	P (%)
Gender:				
Male	75	56	43	54
Female	59	44	36	46
Year in School:				
Freshman	45	33	4	5
Sophomore	33	25	20	25
Junior	24	18	17	22
Senior	16	12	31	39
Graduate	16	12	7	9
Major:				
JPN/ANS	7	5	7	9
Liberal Arts	26	20	18	23
BUS/ECO	38	28	21	27
NS/CS/EN	33	25	17	21
COM/EDU	15	11	10	13
Others	15	11	6	7

Notes:
1. Data in Table 1 are rounded to the nearest whole number.
2. A major uses abbreviation as follows: ANS = Asian Studies, BUS = Business, COM = Communication, CS = Computer Science, ECO = Economics, EDU = Education, JPN = Japanese, and NS = Natural Science.

oral activities were encouraged more in the classroom, while reading and writing were primarily assigned as homework.[1]

The Instruments and Procedure

During the fifth week of the fall semester, a series of questionnaires was administered in the beginning and intermediate Japanese classes in order to collect data on five foreign language affective variables (Japanese-speaking anxiety, language class risktaking, language class sociability, strength of motivation, and attitude toward the Japanese class), types of motivations, and students' personal backgrounds. The questionnaire included a total of forty-one (41) items (Appendix A). Each item was followed by a six-point Likert response scale, with the alternatives labeled: "strongly disagree," "moderately disagree," "slightly disagree," "slightly agree," "moderately agree," and "strongly agree." The instruments were adapted from Ely (1984, 1986). The following were the measuring instruments used in the study:

1. **Japanese Speaking Anxiety**. (Cronbach alpha = .89) This scale is designed to measure the degree of anxiety, self-consciousness, or embarrassment felt when learners speak Japanese in the classroom. The scale was originally named Language Class Discomfort (Ely) and consists of five items.

2. **Language Class Risktaking**. (Cronbach alpha = .80) This scale is designed to measure a student's tendency to assume risks by using Japanese in class. The scale consists of six items.

3. **Language Class Sociability**. (Cronbach alpha = .78) This scale is designed to measure the degree of willingness to interact with others in the Japanese class by means of Japanese. The scale consists of five items.

4. **Strength of Motivation**. (Cronbach alpha = .67) This scale is designed to measure a student's motivational commitment to learn Japanese. The scale consists of seven items.

5. **Attitude toward the Japanese Class.** (Cronbach alpha = .86) This scale is designed to measure a student's attitude toward the Japanese class. The scale consists of four items.

6. **Concern for Grade**. There are two items to assess a student's concern for grades.

7. **Motivation Type**. There are twelve items to measure student's reasons for studying Japanese. The scale consists of three subscales:

Motivation Type A characterizes students' desire for cultural broadening and belief in the importance of foreign language study, and there were seven items in the scale (Cronbach alpha = .83). Motivation Type B contains three items and characterizes expected usefulness in one's career (Cronbach alpha = .70). Finally, Motivation Type C depicts students' need to fulfill foreign language requirements and is measured by two items (Cronbach alpha = .67).

8. **Final Grade.**[2] Final grade (percentage) for both beginning and intermediate students were measured by combining their cumulative scores on daily quizzes, lesson quizzes, oral exams, final exam, and homework assignments.

Students also filled out a form that included questions on the student's gender, year in school, academic major, length of time spent in Japan (living or visiting), and amount of time spent studying Japanese outside of class (Appendix B). Students' final course grades (percentages) for the semester were obtained at the end of the semester as a global measure of performance (Chastain, 1975; Horwitz et al. 1991; Comeau, 1992; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992; Aida, 1994). The Japanese language program is coordinated in such a way as to provide uniform instructional guidelines and assessment instruments across all levels of instruction. At the end of the following semester, the students who continued or did not continue were identified and entered into the data set for statistical analysis.

Data Analysis

The collected data were examined using logistic regression in order to determine which variables significantly contributed to the prediction of probability for distinguishing continuing students from discontinuing students in the first- and second-year classes. While a variety of multivariate statistical techniques may be employed to predict a binary dependent variable from a set of independent variables, when the dependent variable has only two values, namely, continuing and discontinuing students, logistic regression seems to be the most appropriate (Norusis, 1990). Independent variables included in the first analysis were five foreign language affective variables (Japanese-speaking anxiety, language class risktaking, language class sociability, strength of motivation, and attitude toward the Japanese class), students' personal backgrounds (gender, year in school, length of time spent in Japan, and time spent for study), and final grades, all of which provided a comprehensive picture of the student's perspectives on studying Japanese.

The second analysis was conducted using logistic regression to determine which motivational type is important for attrition in the beginning and intermediate Japanese classes. Three types of motivations, Type A, B, and C, were included in the analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the analysis as they pertain to each research question are as follows.

Research Question 1

What student characteristics contribute to predicting attrition in Japanese language classes at the university level? Are there different characteristics depending on language levels, that is, beginning and intermediate level?

As shown in Table 2, attrition rates were 45% and 32% for beginning and intermediate students, respectively. Logistic regression identified the characteristics that distinguished continuing or discontinuing students at each level. Significant predictive characteristics for the beginning students based on Wald statistics (see Table 3) are as follows:

Final Grades ($r = -.33$, $p < .001$)
Strength of Motivation ($r = -.23$, $p < .01$)
Year in school ($r = .26$, $p < .01$)
Gender ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$)
Length of Time Spent in Japan ($r = -.17$, $p < .05$)
Attitudes toward Language Class ($r = .11$, $p < .05$)

Overall, the prediction successfully classified 76.3% of the students who did not continue.

In other words, among the beginning students, those who are likely not to enroll in the second semester of beginning-level Japanese classes were characterized as receiving low grades, having weak motivation, and having a negative attitude toward their Japanese class. Furthermore, female students are more likely not to continue compared to male students and as the learner's year in school increases (e.g., graduate students are less likely to continue studying Japanese after the first semester). Importantly, students who have spent more time in Japan as a visitor or resident are more likely to continue to the second semester.

With the intermediate students, logistic regression identified the following discriminating variables between continuing and discontinuing students (see Table 4):

Final Grades ($r = -.30$, $p < .05$)
Strength of Motivation ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$)
Speaking Anxiety ($r = -.20$, $p < .05$)

In other words, among the intermediate students, those who are likely to drop out of the Japanese classes were characterized as receiving low grades, having weak motivation, and having high speaking anxiety.

The results of the logistic regressions reveal some common characteristics in terms of predicting variables for attrition. For both beginning and intermediate students, final grades and strength of motivation are important discriminating variables. In fact, among the variables entered in the equation, students' final grades had the strongest predicting power ($p < .001$), suggesting that the lower the students' grades, the higher the probability there is for them to discontinue

Table 2
Summary of Attrition of Beginning and Intermediate Japanese Classes: Year in School and Gender (N = 213).

	Language Level							
	Beginning (n = 134)				Intermediate (n = 79)			
	Cont.		Discont.		Cont.		Discont.	
	n	P(%)	n	P(%)	n	P(%)	n	P(%)
Year in school								
Freshman	27	60	18	40	3	67	1	33
Sophomore	21	64	12	36	14	70	6	30
Junior	12	50	12	50	13	76	4	24
Senior	8	50	8	50	20	65	11	35
Graduate	6	37	10	63	4	57	3	43
Total	74	55	60	45	54	68	25	32
Gender								
Male	45	60	30	40	26	60	17	40
Female	29	49	30	51	28	78	8	22
Total	74	55	60	45	54	68	25	32

Note: Data are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Table 3
Variables in the Equation Summary Table of Beginning Japanese Class

Variables	ß	R	Exp(ß)
Final Grade***	-.1853	-.3300	8308
Year in school**	.2151		
2 vs. 1, 3, 4, 5	.7087	.0000	2.0314
3 vs. 1, 2, 4, 5*	1.9860	.1525	7.2860
4 vs. 1, 2, 3, 5**	2.1705	1739	8.7630
5 vs. 1, 2, 3, 4***	3.6164	.2603	37.2016
Length in Japan*	-1.7600	-.1665	.1721
Gender (1)**	-.7715	-.1922	.4623
Strength of Motivation**	-1.6317	-.2371	.1956
Attitudes toward*	.8238	.1068	2.2791
Language Class			

Notes:
1. * = p < .05. ** = p < .01. *** = p < .001.
2. Year in school is as follows: 1 = Freshmen, 2 = Sophomore, 3 = Junior, 4 = Senior and 5 = Graduate.

Table 4
Variables in the Equation Summary Table of Intermediate Japanese Class

Variables	ß	R	Exp (ß)
Final Grade***	-.1086	-.3008	8971
Speaking Anxiety*	.7994	-.2010	.4496
Strength of Motivation**	17.5713	-.2778	.2551

Note: * = p < .05. ** = p < .01. *** = p < .001.

their Japanese study. As Burstall (1975) states, "Achievement variables have a more powerfully determining effect on later behavior than attitudinal variables" (p. 399); in this case, the decision to continue or discontinue the study of Japanese language can depend more on the final grades the students receive than the attitudes they have toward the class.

Grades are very important to students since they are popularly used as an indicator of their academic success or failure. The results of the logistic regressions suggest that the decision to continue or discontinue Japanese is largely dependent upon the grades the students receive. In particular, in the foreign language learning setting as opposed to the second language setting, learners' need for achievement plays an important role in language learning (Dornyei, 1994). Those students who received low grades may have decided to drop the course out of a fear of failure, while the students with good grades may have felt encouraged to pursue further study in Japanese.

Strength of motivation was another salient predictive variable for attrition for both beginning and intermediate students. In other words, those students who were willing to put time and energy into the study of Japanese were likely to persist. This finding is consistent with earlier findings on motivation, language learning, and attrition. (e.g., Gardner and Smythe, 1975, Gardner et al., 1976; Ramage, 1990; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992).

In addition, there were other characteristics predicting attrition between beginning and intermediate students. With the beginning students, four other variables were found to be important: gender, length of stay in Japan, year in school, and attitude toward language class. As shown in Table 2, 51 percent of the female students and 40 percent of the male students dropped out of their Japanese classes. This contradicts one of the findings presented by Baldauf and Lawrence (1990), who found that 50 percent of the females continued foreign language study as compared with 38 percent of the males. Further study is necessary to ascertain the role of gender in Japanese class attrition.

The fact that the length of time spent in Japan was found to be a significant variable for predicting attrition for the beginning students should be noted. This finding suggests that if students have prior exposure to the language and culture before they take formal Japanese instruction, they are more likely to continue to study Japanese. It may be that actually experiencing the language and culture demonstrates the functional value of mastering Japanese and motivates them to persist.

Year in school was a significant contributor to predictions of attrition. As students' year in school increases, the attrition rate becomes higher. As shown in Table 2, ranked by year in school, graduate students had the highest attrition rates, 63 percent for beginning-level and 43 percent for intermediate-level students, respec-

tively. Some possible reasons are that language courses are not counted as graduate credits, that graduate students who are not Japanese majors may drop the language courses when schedule conflicts occur with their majors, and that the students lack the time for preparation, as Jorden and Lambert (1991) discovered in their survey.

Lastly, the evidence that attitude toward the language class was a significant variable for prediction indicates that students who cannot enjoy the Japanese class are more likely not to continue. If students have the motivation to study, types of activities and selection of materials in the class may be important as well as the role of the instructor in making the learning experience more meaningful and enjoyable.

Speaking anxiety was found to be an important predictive variable for attrition among intermediate students; that is to say, those students who felt anxious and awkward speaking Japanese tend to discontinue the study of Japanese. Earlier anxiety studies (e.g., Horwitz and Young, 1991; Young, 1992) have pointed out that a behavioral factor such as cutting class may be a manifestation of anxiety. It is quite possible, then, that when anxiety becomes debilitating, a learner may decide to drop the study of Japanese altogether in order to avoid further pain or discomfort. As the learners' communicative competence becomes increasingly important in language classrooms, their anxiety associated with speaking a target language needs to be carefully examined, since among the four language skills it tends to produce the greatest amount of anxiety among language learners (Young, 1992).

Research Question 2

What motivation types contribute to predicting attrition in enrollments for beginning and intermediate university level Japanese students?

In order to examine to what extent motivation type contributes to attrition in beginning and intermediate Japanese enrollments, logistic regression was performed with motivation types A, B, and C. To recapitulate, type A motivation characterizes integrative motivation, which indicates students who choose to learn a language to identify with the target language group. Type B motivation is instrumental in nature and indicates students who relate the target language to career values. Type C motivation characterizes students who need to satisfy a language requirement (Ely, 1984).

As shown in Table 5, Type A motivation was predicted to be an important variable for beginning students, while, for intermediate students, Type B motivation was predicted to be an important variable to distinguish continuing and discontinuing students. Specifically, the results of the analysis indicate that for the beginning students, it was predicted that students with low integrative motivation are more likely to discontinue, while intermediate students with low instrumental motivation are

Table 5
Variables in the Equation Summary Table of Motivation Type

Levels	ß	R	Exp(ß)
Beginning			
Motivation A* (Integrative)	-.7006	-.1228	.4964
Intermediate			
Motivation B** (Instrumental)	-.0865	-.2703	.3394

Note: * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$

more likely to discontinue. In order to ascertain why different types of motivation affect attrition at two language levels, further research is needed. It should be noted, however, that unlike in Ramage's study (1990), type C motivation, that is, taking Japanese to fulfill a language requirement, was not a significant predictor for attrition.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the present study was to predict possible contributing factors that distinguish between students who continue and those who do not continue in beginning- and intermediate-level Japanese courses. The results of the study indicate that achievement and motivation are the major discriminating factors at both language levels. This finding is fairly consistent with earlier studies of attrition in the commonly taught languages. The motivation type that best predicts continue/discontinue decisions, however, changes from the beginning to the intermediate level. Beginning students with low integrative motivation were less likely to continue, while intermediate students with lower levels of instrumental motivation were less likely to continue. In addition to grade and motivation, four other variables—gender, year in school, attitude toward Japanese class, and length of time spent in Japan—were also found to contribute to predicting attrition at the beginning level of Japanese. As students advance to the intermediate level, however, in addition to the fac-

tors of achievement and motivation, anxiety becomes the only other contributing factor to attrition.

IMPLICATIONS

What implications can be drawn from this study? With regard to the factor of achievement in attrition, it is normal for students not to continue when achievement is low at the end of the semester. What language teachers can do is to focus on students' learning processes during the semester. In other words, teachers need to make sure that students are actually learning what they are supposed to learn in the classroom by means of various forms of testing and evaluation. As teachers successfully detect problem areas, they need to effectively utilize that information to direct students attention to working on their own problem areas in such a way that overcoming these difficulties becomes a rewarding experience that reinforces their confidence and desire to succeed in Japanese.

One way of informing students of their progress may be to turn the responsibility over to the students themselves by establishing self-monitoring procedures. Portfolio assessment may be helpful for that purpose. Failure of learning can originate from student' unawareness of their problem areas. Becoming aware and responsible of their own learning processes is an important stage in their learning to become successful learners.

With regard to strengthening motivation, there are some excellent suggestions by Dornyei (1994), some of which are—

1. Let students see the relationship between effort and success so that they will attribute the outcome to their effort or the lack of effort.

2. Discuss with students the instrumental value of the target language.

3. Invite students to help select teaching materials to increase their interest and involvement.

In addition, it is critical to conduct a needs analysis periodically to ensure that the learners' diverse needs are being well met. As indicated in this study, approximately 30 percent or fewer of all students of Japanese come from the Liberal Arts College and over 50 percent are coming from technical and business fields; this fact needs to be attended when designing the program.

At the beginning level, the fact that students having stronger integrative motivation are more likely to continue suggests that we should attempt to foster the sense of genuine interest in and identification with the target culture. Ways to do this may include the effective use of authentic materials that tap into students' interests and needs at the early stage of beginning-level instruction (Koda, 1992; Saito, 1992; 1994). Some Japanese language instructors have expressed concern that this may be an

ideal but ultimately unrealistic objective because of the complexity of the writing system (Jorden and Lambert, 1991). They suggest that authentic materials will intimidate and overload students. As second language researchers (Lee, 1987; Allen, Bernhardt, Berry, and Demel, 1988) have demonstrated in their studies, however, language teachers tend to underestimate learners' potential for understanding authentic materials. In fact, students are capable of much more if they are positively challenged by "pedagogically-appropriate texts" (Swaffar, Arens, and Byrnes, 1991, p. 190). Authentic materials should be used much more in the beginning stage of learning Japanese, since they help to provide a reality framework, an ever expanding mental image of the target civilization in which to hold the bits and pieces of information students are rapidly accumulating. In this way, for students who have never been to Japan, association through video and realia can make the country, people, language, and culture a part of a meaningful learning experience.

Another way of motivating students in the university setting is to integrate the language program with other parts of the university, so that students from diverse areas can take advantage of various resources for Japanese language instruction. For example, opportunities such as seminars offered by other colleges or departments that are in some way related to Japan, summer programs in Japan or study abroad programs, and professional internships provide students with the means to establish their own goals, and these achievements energize the desire to continue.

With the advance of technology, various communication networks can be established through the internet, and this should also become a part of the curriculum. As students advance into the second year, a stronger sense of instrumental motivation seems to be important for those who continue. This renewed motivation indicates the importance of providing students with information about how they could use Japanese in their careers.

The present study primarily focused on learners' affective characteristics and achievement factors as possible contributing factors to attrition. In a future study, factors such as learners' beliefs about foreign language learning, perceived difficulty of a target language, and the role of teachers should be included. A longitudinal qualitative study could provide different and rich insights into the sources of attrition in Japanese classes.

NOTES:

1. Instruction:
   Beginning and Intermediate level instruction:
   At this level, the majority of the instructors are native speakers of Japanese. Only grammatical and cultural explanations are in English, all other class activities are conducted in Japanese.
2. Grading: Weights
   Beginning and Intermediate level instruction:
   Daily/lesson quizzes 50%

Oral exams	20.0%
Homework	10.0%
Final exam	20.0%

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APPENDIX A
AFFECTIVE FACTORS QUESTIONNAIRE

Japanese-Speaking Anxiety

1. I don't feel very relaxed when I speak Japanese in class.
2. Based on my class experience so far, I think that one barrier to my future use of Japanese is my discomfort when speaking.
3. At times, I feel somewhat embarrassed in class when I'm trying to speak.
4. I think I'm less self-conscious about actively participating in Japanese class than most the other students. (-)*
5. I sometimes feel awkward speaking Japanese.

Language Class Risktaking

1. I like to wait until I know exactly how to use a Japanese word before using it. (-)
2. I don't like trying out a difficult sentence in class. (-)
3. At this point, I don't like trying to express complicated ideas in Japanese in class. (-)
4. I prefer to say what I want in Japanese without worrying about the small details of grammar.
5. In class, I prefer to say a sentence to myself before I speak it. (-)
6. I prefer to follow basic sentence models rather than risk missing the language. (-)

Language Class Sociability

1. I'd like more class activities where the students use Japanese to get to know each other better.
2. I think learning Japanese in group is more fun than learning on my own.
3. I enjoy talking with the teacher and other students in Japanese.
4. I enjoy interacting with the other students in the Japanese class.
5. I think it's important to have a strong group spirit in the language classroom.

Strength of Motivation

1. Outside of class, I almost never think about what I'm learning in class. (-)
2. If possible, I would like to take a second-year Japanese course.
3. Speaking realistically, I would say that I don't try very hard to learn Japanese. (-)
4. I want to be able to use Japanese in a wide variety of situations.
5. I don't really have a great desire to learn a lot of Japanese. (-)
6. Learning Japanese well is not really a high priority for me at this point. (-)
7. Learning Japanese is valuable to me.

Attitude Toward the Japanese Class

1. I find Japanese class to be very boring. (-)
2. I would say that I'm usually very interested in what we do in Japanese class.

3. I don't really like the Japanese class. (-)
4. In general, I enjoy the Japanese class.

Concern for Grade

1. It is very important for me to get an A in Japanese this semester.
2. If I get a C in Japanese this semester, I will probably drop the course.

Motivation Type Cluster A

1. Because I want to learn about another culture to understand the world better.
2. Because I am interested in Japanese culture, history or literature.
3. Because I want to be able to speak more languages than just English.
4. Because I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education.
5. Because I want to be able to use it with Japanese-speaking friends.
6. Because I want to use Japanese when I travel to Japan.

Motivation Type Cluster B.

1. Because I feel it may be helpful in my future career.
2. Because it may make me a more qualified job candidate.
3. Because I want to be able to converse with Japanese speakers in the U.S.

Motivation Type Cluster C

1. Because I need it to fulfill the university foreign language requirement.
2. Because I need to study a foreign language as a requirement for my major.

* A minus sign indicates an item which is negative on the scale.

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

Note: This questionnaire is strictly confidential. This page will be removed and a number will be assigned to each questionnaire. The results will be recorded by number, not by name.

1. Name:
   _____
2. Sex:
   Male_____
   Female _____
3. Major:
   _____
4. Year in College:
   Freshman ___
   Sophomore____
   Junior ___
   Senior ___
   Master ___
   Doctoral ___

5. Have you ever been to Japan?
   Yes ____
   No _____

   If yes, how long (total period of time)? _____

   For what purpose? _____

6. How many hours do you spend per day/per week on Japanese?
   Per day _____ per week _____

An Analysis of a Common Structure in Korean-English Code-Switching: A Test of the Matrix Language Framework

MI-AE LEE

This paper examines the morphosyntactic mechanism of a common code-switching (CS) pattern, the use of an English adjective (content morpheme) + Korean -ita *(a system morpheme meaning "be") in the speech of Korean-English bilinguals. The data consist of audiotaped conversations of three participants with their family members or bilingual friends and of CS utterances selected by the researcher from daily conversations. The paper addresses two issues. First, according to the data, Poplack's bound morpheme and equivalence constraints do not seem to be universally applicable to explanations of CS phenomena. The present study, in fact, demonstrates that a matrix language frame model (MLF) is more explanatory than Poplack's model in terms of Korean and English morphosyntax. Second, the paper suggests two possible explanations for the production of English Adj +* -ita. *This study assumes that English Adj +* -ita *may result from (1) a tendency toward nominalization in CS or (2) a transfer of English grammar to Korean-based CS.*

INTRODUCTION

Although code-switching (CS) is commonly observed in bilingual communities, there seems to be some disagreement in terminology within the literature. In general, CS can be defined as the use of two languages in a single speech situation. My research interest in CS focuses on the ability of Korean bilinguals—who have had no previous systematic learning—to grammatically weave two languages, Korean and English, within their speech communities. Such syntactic ability raises two questions: How do people control two conflicting grammars in one sentence? Why do people code switch more or less in certain situations?

In this study, I will focus on answering "What governs the context in which CS can occur?" To do so, I will review three studies: Poplack (1980); Poplack, Wheeler, and Westwood (1989); and Myers-Scotton and Jake (1995). Furthermore, I will examine how the models proposed in the three studies explain the structures of intrasentential CS data, especially with respect to Korean-English CS, and I will investigate how their assumptions were supported in data analysis.

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1. OVERVIEW OF THREE STUDIES

Three studies—Poplack (1980); Poplack, Wheeler, and Westwood (1989); and Myers-Scotton and Jake (1995)—discuss intrasentential code-switching and propose different morphosyntactic approaches to CS analysis. Poplack (1980) analyzes the speech of twenty Puerto Rican bilinguals in order to support her hypothesis that the equivalence constraint can be used to rate bilingual ability. Poplack et al. (1989) attempts to validate the equivalence constraint on intrasentential code-switching on the basis of natural speech data from two typologically different languages, Finnish and English. Taking a perspective different from those two, Myers-Scotton and Jake (1995), supporting the matrix language frame model with extensive evidence from various languages, discusses implications of CS data regarding the nature of language competence and production, particularly in connection with the nature of lexical entries.

1.1 Principles of the Poplack and the Myers-Scotton Models

The following are summaries of the Poplack and the Myers-Scotton models.

1.1.1 Poplack's Constraint Model

Poplack proposes two syntactic constraints on code-switching: the bound morpheme constraint and the equivalence constraint. The bound morpheme constraint states that CS cannot occur between a free and a bound morpheme. In Poplack's terms, "Codes may be switched after any constituent in discourse provided that the constituent is not a bound morpheme" (1980, p. 585). This means, for example, that an item such as "*EAT-iendo" meaning 'eating,' which consists of a Spanish bound morpheme '-iendo' affixed to an English stem 'eat,' should not occur in Spanish-English code-switching "unless one of the morphemes has been integrated phonologically into the language of the other" (1980, p. 586). According to this constraint, there is no intra-word CS, except for the case of borrowing.

On the other hand, the equivalence constraint states that CS can occur where the surface structures of the languages are identical; that is, if a switch occurs at a boundary between two constituents that are ordered differently in the two languages, the resulting configuration will be ungrammatical by the standards of at least one of the languages. For example, for Spanish bilinguals, switching between nouns and adjectives as in "*mi brother grande" and "*mi grande brother" is not expected because the result would violate English word order or Spanish word order.

1.1.2 Myers-Scotton's MLF Model

While Poplack proposes the bound morpheme and equivalence constraints to explain code-switching, Myers-Scotton proposes a matrix

language frame model (MLF). The MLF model assumes that the two languages do not participate equally in intrasentential CS; that is, one language is dominant and thus projects the overall frame for intrasentential CS. Such a language is called the matrix language (ML). The ML, according to Myers-Scotton and Jake, provides more morphemes, especially system morphemes, in CS, and therefore speakers engaged in CS perceive the ML as the language that they are speaking at the time of actual utterance. Unlike the ML, the embedded language (EL), which is the guest language in CS, usually occurs as content morphemes in the grammatical frame projected by the ML.

This distinction between the ML and the EL leads to the prediction of three kinds of structural constituents in intrasentential CS: ML constituents, EL constituents, and ML+EL constituents.

1.2 Data Analysis Within the Two Models

The following describes how the two models differ in their approaches to data analysis.

1.2.1 Poplack's Data Analysis

Underlying Poplack's data analysis is a hypothesis that the data in the prohibited sites may not represent code-switching. In other words, Poplack claims that the bound morpheme constraint and the equivalence constraint make predictions about where CS can and cannot occur. In her 1980 study, Poplack neglects such items like "BLANQUITO (whitey) friends" and "pechos (chests) FLAT" produced by Puerto Rican bilinguals (1980, p. 600). She believes that such outcomes, which do not follow grammatical rules shared by both L1 and L2, result from poor bilingual competence.

Interestingly, however, Poplack and her colleagues in their 1989 study of Finnish-English bilingualism find a strong tendency (79%) to inflect the English nouns in Finnish discourses, as in the example below (1989, p. 400):

Mä kerran lähetin sen tuonne
I once sent-1p. it-g. there-al
dry cleaner iin
-il
I once sent it to the dry cleaners there.

Poplack and her colleagues argue that such cases differ from CS because the morphological and syntactic treatment of the items is similar to that of established loan-words. Distinguishing this type of borrowing from CS, Poplack et al. use the term "nonce borrowing," which means "borrowing made only once or for a special occasion," and they further support the notion that the bound morpheme constraint and the equivalence constraint are still valid to explain CS.

1.2.2 Myers-Scotton's Data Analysis

Myers-Scotton and Jake introduce two important concepts, lemmas and congruence, to analyze CS data within their MLF model. They

define a lemma as "a carrier of lexical-conceptual structure and an associated predicate-argument structure and concomitant morphological realization patterns" (1988). Congruence, for Myers-Scotton and her colleague, refers to "a match between the ML and the EL at the lemma level with respect to linguistically relevant features" (1985).

According to these researchers, lemmas link a speaker's conceptual intentions with the functional structure and morphological patterns of a specific language. In other words, the speaker's communicative intention activates both lemmas of two languages, especially in the cases of intrasentential CS, and selects congruent EL lexemes in the direction of the ML frame. For instance, if the speaker finds "sufficient congruence" between the EL lemma and the ML lemma, then the EL lexeme that this EL lemma supports can appear in a mixed constituent (EL+ML) in this ML frame. The following Swahili-English CS datum illustrates this phenomenon (1994).

Leo si-ku-COME
today 1S/NEG PAST/NEG-come
na Ø-BOOK-S z-angu
with CL 10-book-s CL 10-my
Today I didn't come with my books.

On the other hand, if the speaker finds "insufficient congruence," the EL morphemes may appear in a bare form, in a *do* construction, or as an EL island. Myers-Scotton and Jake show the following example with Tamil-English CS (1995) as an illustration of a bare form.

Avan enne CONFUSE paNNiTaan
he me confuse do-PAST
He confused me.

In this way, Myers-Scotton and her colleague demonstrate how the three kinds of constituents can be possible in intrasentential CS.

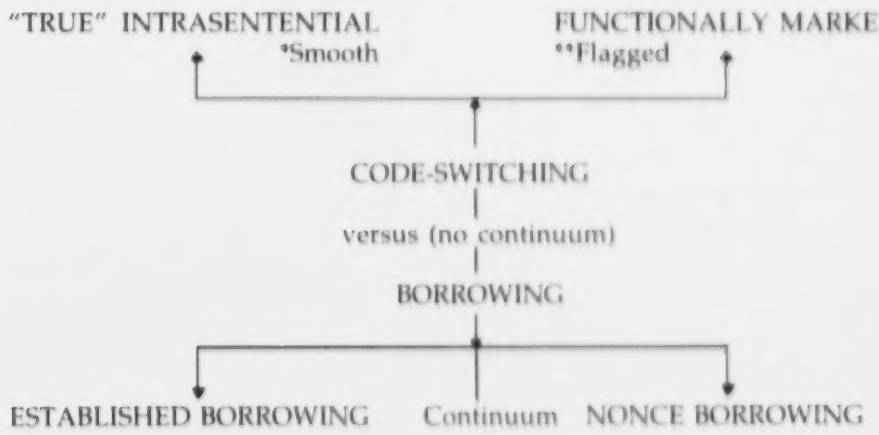
1.3. Implications of the Two Models

Poplack (1980) suggests that the code-switching mode proceeds from that area of the bilingual's grammar where the surface structures of L1 (the speaker's first language) and L2 (his/her second language) overlap. According to Poplack in the same study, although nonfluent bilinguals are able to code-switch frequently, they tend to maintain grammaticality in both L1 and L2 by favoring emblematic or tag-switching in which the segments may occur at any point in a sentence (in her terms, such CS is "extrasentential"). On the other hand, Poplack finds that those speakers with the greatest degree of bilingual ability favor intrasentential CS, which she hypothesizes to require the greater linguistic skill. In light of these findings, Poplack claims that code-switching may be a sensitive indicator of bilingual ability. To avoid misunderstanding of her conclusion, it is important to remember that Poplack counts only data that obeys the bound morpheme con-

straint and the equivalence constraint.

Poplack and her colleagues (1989), in keeping with the linguistic constraints already established by Poplack (1980), provide clear distinctions between CS and nonce borrowing. According to them, while code-switching is the alternation of two languages within a single discourse or constituent, nonce borrowing is a lexical form that is phonologically and morphologically woven into the base language and that may not occur again. Figure 1 shows the relationships among the processes (1989, p. 403).

Although Poplack and her colleagues try to defend the weaknesses of their claim by separating CS from nonce borrowing, they do not seem successful. According to those authors, nonce borrowings are lexical forms morphologically, syntactically, and phonologically integrated into L1. However, as is often the case, fluent Korean-English bilinguals (and perhaps other bilinguals) use English words or phrases with the original English pronunciations in their Korean sentences. (I mean by "fluent" here an intuitive understanding of the notion that



* Smooth: CS at imperceptible switch points

** Flagged: CS highlighted by discourse devices such as metalinguistic commentary, repetition, or translation

Figure 1. Relationships between CS and borrowing.
(Adapted from Poplack et al. (1989, p. 403)

members of the speech community evaluate.) If so, such cases may still remain different from nonce borrowings. Suppose that those cases above are nonce borrowings. How can the speakers embed the borrowed words into the base language without any grammatical errors? Would intrasentential CS ever be possible between languages that are typologically and morphologically different?

Contrary to Poplack's model, which cannot resolve these questions, Myers-Scotton's MLF model seems to explain better the various types of CS data. Their assumption that various types of congruence explain variation in intrasentential CS structures is fully supported by extensive CS evidence. Consequently, their model appears to be lend itself to a better understanding of CS structures than do the syntactic constraints proposed by Poplack; in fact, Poplack et al. confess that "It is not our claim that the equivalence constraint is uniformly pertinent to every bilingual community, even to those in which mixing of the two codes is frequent at the intrasentential level" (1989, p. 390).

Indeed, the MLF model is much more powerful than that of Poplack. It may have the potential to explain language production far beyond the nature of CS itself in some universal sense. The notion of congruence, that is, of how an EL content morpheme is accommodated by an ML frame, has implications about which features characterizing the morpheme are critical and which are peripheral at the level of lemmas, as Myers-Scotton and Jake mention (1019). Their hypotheses about lexical entries and congruence involving lexical-conceptual structure, predicate-argument structure, and morphological realization patterns provide a persuasive psychological-schema about how the human brain works in controlling what humans know and what they want to present.

2. TYPOLOGICAL FEATURES OF KOREAN RELATED TO CODE-SWITCHING

Given the two models of CS phenomena, this paper attempts to test the applicability of the MLF model to Korean-English CS data. Since Korean and English are morphosyntactically different, it is necessary to briefly look at some features of Korean germane to the present study.

Korean, as an SOV language, differs from English in various ways. Most of all, to understand the present study, one must appreciate the rich system of particles in Korean. These particles combine primarily with nouns and verbs. Particles attached to nouns signify case relationships and serve functions that are carried out by prepositions in English, as in the following example:

(1) nay **-ka** hankwuk **-eyse**
I **-NOM** Korea **-LOC**
ku yak **-ul** sassta
the medicine **-ACC** bought
I bought the medicine in Korea.

Some particles suffixed to nouns change the nouns into verb predicates. For instance, a large number of verbs are made up of noun + *-hata*. In other words, *-hata* combines with nouns and creates new verbs meaning "to do what the noun refers to," as shown in (2) and (3).

(2) mal **-hata**
speech **-do**
to speak

(3) kongpwu **-hata**
studies **-do**
to study

The verbalizer *-hata* can also be found in a number of adjective predicates in which *-hata* does not indicate actions at all. Instead, like adjective predicates in English, Korean adjective predicates with the form of *-hata* describe the state or property of their arguments as shown in (4) and (5).

(4) moca-ka nolusulum **-hata**
hat-NOM yellowish **-be**
The hat is yellowish

(5) J-ka cengswuk
J-NOM feminine modesty
-hata
-be
J is modest

Another particle, *-ita*, also combines with nouns, but indicates identity with its argument, as in "I *am a teacher*." The following example demonstrates the function of *-ita*.

(6) J -ka haksayng **-ita**
J-NOM student **-be**
J is a student

In addition, particles added to verbs are inflected to indicate tense, degree of respect to addressee, conditionality, causality, and so on. The following examples show how particles attach to a verb.

(7) il **-ha** -si- -ess-
-work-**do** (honorific) (past)
unikka
(bound morpheme 'because')
Because . . . worked

(8) haksayng -iya
student **-be** (present, intimate)
be a student

(9) kongpwu -**haysse**
studies **-do** (past, intimate)
studied

3. RESEARCH QUESTION

The observations that *-hata* creates an adjective predicate and *-ita* always combines with an N (or an NP) might lead monolingual Korean speakers to predict the structures English Adj + *-hata* and English N + *-ita* in order to make a proper predicate in Korean-based CS. However, the behavior of many speakers in their natural CS does not bear out this prediction. Table 1 shows contrastive examples of English Adj + *-hata* and English Adj + *-ita*. For purposes of simplicity, these

Table 1. Contrastive Examples of English Adj + *-hata* and English Adj + *-ita*

-hata 'do' speakers	*-ita* 'be' speakers	gloss
NORMAL-*hata*	NORMAL-*ita*	'be normal'
SERIOUS-*hata*	SERIOUS-*ita*	'be serious'
NICE-*hata*	NICE-*ita*	'be nice'

examples do not include the original inflections. As will be demonstrated, those who have relatively strong English ability or relatively extensive exposure to English tend to produce English Adj + *-ita* rather than English Adj + *-hata*. Even more interestingly, some *-hata* speakers (mostly monolinguals) express an objection to the form English Adj + *-ita*. They complain that-*ita* speakers reveal their ungrammaticality and ignorance of the Korean language. Nonetheless, *-ita* speakers communicate with other speakers of Korean without any problem, and furthermore, the structure with *-ita* appears to be a shared pattern among a group of bilinguals, according to the data.

Such a phenomenon suggests that the underlying mechanism of the different linguistic behaviors could be approached from various perspectives. This study, however, attempts to look at the morphosyntactic properties based on the MLF model, rather than to examine psycholinguistic or sociolinguistic properties, and thereby reach a better understanding of how the bilinguals produce the linguistic pattern that is unexpected by Korean monolinguals and that would not be predicted by monolingual Korean grammar.

Thus, this study does not include all possible code-switching patterns; instead, the study focuses on the form of English Adj + *-ita*, which contrasts sharply with the forms used by Korean monolinguals.

4. DATA

The data under consideration in this paper were obtained by audiotaping three Korean-English bilinguals while they had a natural conversation with their bilingual friends or family members. The participants were DJ, a male college student (22) who immigrated into the U.S. at the age of 5; SM, a female college student (21) who was American-born and raised by Korean-speaking parents; and RB, a male college student (25) who came to the U.S. when he was 11 years old. These partici-

pants can be described as English-dominant bilinguals.

I also selected data on CS patterns from observations of daily conversations, especially from speakers who have lived in the States more than 8 years. Most college students in their early to mid-20s. Those speakers can be characterized as Korean-dominant bilinguals.

As far as coding is concerned, I paid most attention to intrasentential CS within the matrix language (ML) of Korean. Of those productions, I attempted to transcribe only the relevant utterances and ignored sentences that were not clearly audible or had English as the ML. The transcription of Korean followed the Yale System of Romanization. In the end, a total of 105 relevant utterances were extracted from 3 hours of tape recording and additional note-taking. (See Appendix.)

5. DATA ANALYSIS

The data argue against the universality of the syntactic constraints by Poplack, which, according to her 1980 study, fail to address various problems derived from morphological disparity (the bound morpheme constraint) and word order differences (the equivalence constraint) between two languages in a single sentence. More than 30% of the extracted intrasentential CS violates the bound morpheme constraint, the equivalence constraint, or both. Relevant examples are–

(10) COMPETE-ul mothay
compete -ACC can't do (intimate)
can't compete with

(11) darundey SPEND TIME
something else spend time
-ul mani hay
-ACC much do (intimate)
(I) spend much time on something else

The Korean bound morpheme *-ul* switches the English content morphemes, the V in (10) and the VP in (11), into nominals within the ML frame. Not only do (10) and (11) violate the bound morpheme constraint, but the sentences do not follow the Korean word order; V or VP normally comes at the end of sentence in Korean syntax. In other words, the numerous Korean-English CS cases exemplified by (10) and (11) contradict the claim that no switching may take place between two morphemes that are morphologically bound to each other or that are differently ordered in the two languages.

In contrast, the MLF model of Myers-Scotton seems to present a reasonable resolution to the research question. First, the hypothesis concerning three possible kinds of constituents (the ML constituent, the embedded language (EL) constituent, and the mixed constituent) in the MLF model seems to sufficiently explain the following data:

(12) TRADE CONFLICT-i isse
a trade conflict -NOM there is
-se
-CONJ
There is a trade conflict and so

(13) ONE AND A HALF CLASS-
one and a half classes
(ul)[1] SKIP haysse
(-ACC) skip do (intimate, past)
(I) skipped one and a half classes

Example (12) contains the mixed constituent (the EL content morpheme + the ML system morpheme), which implies that the speaker found sufficient congruence between the EL lemma and its ML counterpart. Example (13), however, shows the presence of the EL constituent. In this case, because of "insufficient congruence" at the level of lemma, the speaker needed to use a compromise strategy, which resulted in the EL island + do-verb construction. In this regard, the MLF model seems to explain the structure of the English content morpheme of adjective plus the Korean system morpheme of *-hata*.

Yet, there still remains the problematic form of English Adj + *-ita*. Looking closely at the CS patterns produced by the bilinguals, this study suggests two possible explanations for the structure of English Adj + *-ita*; namely, the structure may come from either (1) a tendency toward nominalization in CS or (2) a transfer of the EL grammar to CS.

5.1 A Tendency Toward Nominlization in CS

A strong tendency toward nominal CS and nominalization may lead the speakers to treat English adjectives as nouns in the process of Korean-English CS. The data indicate that 46% of the intrasentential CS corpus excluding proper nouns involves nominals. The most common types of nominal CS are English N(P) + case-marker, as in (14), and English N(P) + time- or location-marker, as in (15):

(14) A LOT OF PEOPLE -ka
a lot of people -NOM
mani kakilohaysse?
many be going to go
Are there a lot of people who want to go?

(15) SUNDAY MORNING -ey
Sunday morning -TIME
yeki olkeya?
here be going to come
(Are you) gonna come here on Sunday morning?

In addition to the rich evidence from nominal CS, the data show that bilinguals tend to nominalize any part of speech from the EL within the ML frame. The following utterances demonstrate how the speakers interweave the two languages:

(11) darundey SPEND TIME -
something else spend time
ul mani hay
-ACC much do (intimate)

(I) spend much time on something else

(16) ME TOO -ya
me too -be (inflected form of *-ita*; intimate, present)
Me, too

(17) PROFESSIONAL[2] -chelem
professional-like
ip -ko
dress -CONJ
(I) dress like a professional woman and

(18) enu INTANGIBLE[3] -i
something intangible -NOM
towum-ul cwulswuissta
help -ACC may give
Some intangible thing may give (me) help.

The speakers nominalized the VP as in (11), the S-bar as in (16), and the Adj as in (17) and (18). The proportion of nominalization thus amounts to nearly 10% of the data, without counting English Adj + *-ita*. It seems that the strong tendency toward nominal CS may nominalize any EL constituent as a default under certain circumstances. Therefore, this study assumes that the strong propensity for nominalization in CS may have impact on the structure of English Adj + *-ita*.

5.2. A Transfer of English Grammar

For the second possible account of the problematic structure of English Adj + *-ita*, the current study suggests that the transfer of English grammar as a cause; that is, when the speaker chooses an English adjective as the EL at the conceptual level, he or she may then require "be" in order to construct a predicate based on the chosen lexeme. At the same time, the speaker activates the ML morphosyntactic bundle of the ML counterpart whose lemma is directing the projection of the sentential frame. As a result, English *be* is realized as the Korean *-ita*, which means " be," for the proper system morpheme. Therefore, the bilinguals naturally produce sentences like (19) and (20) below.

(19) kyay-n SERIOUS -ya
that person-TOP serious be
(*-ita*: intimate, present)
(Linda,) she is serious

(20) CLASS-ka FULL -iya
class -NOM full be (*-ita*: intimate, present)
The class is full

One can find extensive evidence to support the argument that English grammar is transferred into Korean-based CS. The most obvious clue is that the bilinguals frequently omit Korean system morphemes, such as case-markers or locative markers, which are postpositions, as in the following examples.

(13) ONE AND A HALF CLASS
one and a half classes
(-ACC) SKIP haysse
skip do (intimate, past)

(I) skipped one and a half classes

(21) STUDY ROOM (LOC)
study room
kassesse
go (intimate, past)
(I) went to the study room

(22) HOW MANY PEOPLE (NOM)
how many people
wasse?
come (intimate, past, interrogative)
How many people came?

This pattern seems to appear because English does not have a morphological system like that of Korean.

Further evidence can be found in the word order not only in the CS data but in their "Korean only" sentences as well. Examples are–

(23) mot STUDY hayyó
cannot study do (honorific, present)
(Canonically, "STUDY mot hayyo")
(I) can't study

(24) kongpwuhaysse mani?
study (intimate, past) a lot
(Canonically, "kongpwu mani haysse")
(Did you) study a lot?

In addition to the variations in system morphemes and word order, participants also sometimes used English intonation, English phonology, and English-influenced Korean lexical choice in Korean-based CS or Korean-only sentences. The following example from MS's phone conversation with her mother shows how English transferred to her CS:

(25) Mommy, last week (-ey)
Mommy last week (-TIME)
nay -ka cip -ey
I -NOM home -LOC
onkeya?
come[4] (intimate, present, interrogative)
Mommy, last week did I come home (was it last week when I was there)?

In such telephone conversations, Korean monolinguals would not use "come" but "go," whereas English speakers choose "come" to take into account their listener's location.

6. DISCUSSION

Within the MLF model, this study explores the morphosyntactic mechanism of a particular CS structure by Korean-English bilinguals. The analysis supports Myers-Scotton's claim that the congruence hypothesis of the MLF model seems generally applicable to the current data.

However, the analysis indicates that language production regarding CS phenomena is in reality far more complicated than the schema Myers-Scotton and Jake (1995) show. Indeed, it is so complicated that the dichotomy between the EL lemma and the ML lemma appears a bit fuzzy at some level.

The ambiguity appears in the Adj + *-ita* data of this study and in the double morphology data concerning plural and infinitival affixes in Myers-Scotton and Jake. (1995, p. 999).

In the present study, a possible reason for English Adj + *-ita* in Korean-English CS is that the CS structure seems to result from the activation of both the EL and the ML at the functional level. In other words, it is assumed that after selecting the EL content morpheme, the speakers choose the proper predicate-argument structure in the EL lemma and the proper morphological realization pattern in the ML lemma. While Myers-Scotton and Jake (1995) assume that the appearance of both morphemes may be a "mistiming," the present study suggests the likelihood that these English-dominant bilinguals may have a certain portion of mixed lemmas involving their two languages. The intersection of two lemmas may allow bilinguals to produce their own structures.

The current analysis also finds that there seems to be a relationship between the use of English Adj + *-ita* and speakers' linguistic behaviors deriving from their contact with the two languages; that is, the bilinguals who have been exposed to the two languages from birth or before their critical period show a consistency of using English Adj + *-ita*. On the other hand, speakers who have had contact with L2 after their critical period and have had relatively short exposure to the bilingual context preferred English Adj + *-hata*. In fact, some of those who have recently come to the U.S. for their graduate studies tend to regard English Adj + *-ita* as the wrong form.

The most interesting speakers are those who immigrated in their mid-teens and have lived in a two-language setting for a relatively long time, that is, more than 8 years. They use both structures, although the reason is not clear yet. Again, this relationship implies that there may be mixed lemmas for the two languages, depending on the properties of particular cases of bilingualism. However, to make a stronger argument, the current study needs to include a broader range of participants and data.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the participants in the present study. And I will never know how to thank Dr. Keith Walters for his dedicated interest throughout the writing of the paper.

NOTES:

1. The entire utterance as it would be in Korean normally contains *-ul* for an accusative marker.
2. Korean monolinguals would expect the following:
   PROFESSIONAL-hakey ip -ko
   professional-adverbial suffix
   dress -CONJ
3. I understood this utterance as "something which is uncertain yet may give me help." There is a possibility that my interpretation differs from the speaker's intention. Therefore, it might have

been helpful to have had a playback session with the participants.

2&3. Frankly speaking, I struggled with these utterances while analyzing the data. Although "professional" and "intangible" can be both a noun and an adjective, it seems that Korean monolinguals tend to treat them only as adjectives in their Korean-English sentences. Consequently, Korean monolinguals may produce sentences different from those that these bilinguals uttered.

4. Although she used the present tense of *come*, the speaker obviously meant the past tense. In fact, these bilinguals sometimes showed Korean grammatical-errors, which seemed to be repeated, but this paper ignored such grammatical errors, for this issue was out of scope of the current study.

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Appendix

The Yale System of Romanization
(' marks a tense consonant)

Hangul	Yale	Basic Phonemic Realization	Hangul	Yale	Basic Phonemic Realization
ㅂ	p	/p/	ㅣ	i	/i/
ㅍ	ph	/ph/	ㅟ	wi	/wi/
ㅃ	pp	/p'/	ㅔ	ey	/e/
ㄷ	t	/t/	ㅖ	yey	/ye/
ㅌ	th	/th/	ㅞ	wey	/we/
ㄸ	tt	/t'/	ㅚ	oy	/œ/
ㅅ	s	/s/	ㅐ	ay	/e/, /æ/
ㅆ	ss	/s'/	ㅒ	yay	/ye/, /yæ/
ㅈ	c	/č/	ㅙ	way	/we/, /wæ/
ㅊ	ch	/čh/	ㅡ	u	/ɯ/
ㅉ	cc	/č'/	ㅓ	e	/ə/
ㄱ	k	/k/	ㅕ	ye	/yə/
ㅋ	kh	/kh/	ㅝ	we	/wə/
ㄲ	kk	/k'/	ㅏ	a	/a/
ㅁ	m	/m/	ㅑ	ya	/ya/
ㅇ	ng	/ŋ/	ㅘ	wa	/wa/
ㄹ	l	/l/	ㅜ	wu	/u/
ㅎ	h	/h/	ㅠ	yu	/yu/
			ㅗ	o	/o/
			ㅛ	yo	/yo/
			ㅢ	uy	/ɯi/

Research Review

Input Processing and Grammar Instruction in Second Language Acquisition. Bill VanPatten. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation, 1996. Pp. viii, 177. $42.50, cloth.

Review by KAROL J. HARDIN

Although this book is another attempt at providing a better approach than that of traditional grammar instruction, it uniquely focuses on input and proposes a teaching method motivated by both theory and research. The core argument is that input processing (via processing instruction, a type of explicit grammar instruction) shapes the intake data that a language learner has available for accommodation by his/her developing system. Since the intended audience for this book consists of scholars and nonbeginning students of second language acquisition and teaching, it addresses the perpetual gap between theory and pedagogy. Working within a cognitive framework, this model emphasizes that language learners must make form-meaning connections. Central to this process are structured input activities, which indicate to the learner what to attend to in the input. Rather than attempting to compete with existing theories such as that of Universal Grammar and first language transfer, input processing is presented as complementary to such models.

The book first examines the acknowledged role of input and grammar by researchers in second language acquisition. Arguing that processing instruction focuses on form in communicative and input-rich environments, it is presented as an attractive alternative to traditional output-based grammar instruction.

Three principles (and corollaries) are proposed that outline processes that learners use to filter input data and that help explain the partial nature of the learner's evolving grammatical system. Principle One states that learners process input for meaning before they process it for form. The other two principles address processing of nonmeaningful form and assignment of agentive role to the first noun (phrase) encountered in a sentence. Guidelines for structured input activities with specific examples from Spanish college curricula are also delineated.

Chapter Four includes five detailed studies involving input processing in the acquisition of Spanish. All of these studies found input processing to be more effective than traditional grammar approaches. It is important to note, however, that there were only two

populations for these studies and that all were in one language. Furthermore, the effectiveness of these studies was measured by output even though the model in question does not include output. The final chapters examine other potential criticisms of the model and remaining issues to be addressed.

Despite the abstract nature of much of the book, many helpful step-by-step diagrams are included. Since the focus of most of the examples and research is on Spanish, the book may be particularly useful to college teachers of Spanish. As the author readily acknowledges, his theory is not thoroughly articulated yet (e.g., acoustic properties are not included, among other factors) and will undoubtedly undergo revision over time. Nevertheless, his exclusion of a cultural and contextual component seems particularly problematic. How would he integrate input processing into a contextually based curriculum? The author appears to overlook the inseparableness of language and culture. Further research is necessary before the studies cited can be generalized to other populations than the two included and before the long-term effectiveness of processing instruction can be demonstrated. Yet the concept of an approach to explicit grammar instruction that is complementary to Universal Grammar, first language transfer, and communicative approaches to teaching is appealing. The author provides such a possible link; only further research will determine the usefulness and validity of the model for second language acquisition.

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